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DIDACTIC COMMUNICATION: INTERACTION, COMPREHENSION AND INTERPRETATION

Merima Carmen Petrovici, Assist. Prof., PhD, Romanian Ministry of Education

Abstract: Regardless of the perspective for the approach as a semiotic or social interaction, communication represents a fascinating game of assumptions and subtle meanings that most people learn to play in a more or less efficient manner. The difficulties arise especially when meanings are not clarified or when the explanations do not suffice, activities which are not always easy to accomplish.

The interaction of a person with a group is a lot more difficult. Didactic communication, a direct and multipolar process shows just this type of interaction, where the teacher will always wonder of his ability to facilitate the understanding in a case where only verbal communication will be enough to influence understanding and maintain the attention of the class. Therefore, before decoding the message, both the sender and the receiver will filter the message through a series of personal „screens”.

This paper has the goal of highlighting the importance of understanding in the process of didactic communication, as a first elementary and automated stage as well as a ladder towards interpretation, through judgement and inferences as a second stage. The two stages that do not have an exact boundary as many times they combine, represent the key that opens the door to efficient didactic communication.

Key words: didactic communication, understanding, interpreting, teacher, interaction.

Since 1940, the Palo Alto School put the study of interaction and communication into a new perspective. The representatives of this school focused on kinesics, proxemics and contexts in communication, developing a genuine systemic and interactive model of communication. The theoretical approach of Palo Alto School considers communication as an integrated social phenomenon, building a bridge between relational and organizational aspects; the inter-individual and social mechanisms that regulate relations social relations, namely that every human behavior has a communicative value. Thus, communication is no longer seen as an isolated phenomenon, but as a "social process, permanently integrating multiple behavioral modes: words, gestures, gaze, and the inter-individual space"¹.

This is one consideration which led to a plethora of definitions of universal and all-embracing concept of communication. Researchers Frank E.X. Dance and Carl E. Larson tried to select relevant definitions and obtained 126 formulations. Performed about 30 years ago, their approach allowed specialists organize information according to the specific social and human disciplines, to the selected theoretical models and operational methodological approaches. Likewise, Frank E.X. Dance considers the multiple meaning concept of communication, such as transfer, exchange, transfer or sharing; transmitting information from a source to a receiver; process by which a source transmits a message to a recipient to influence subsequent behavior; verbal exchange of thoughts and ideas; interaction (even at a biological level); process of transmitting information, ideas, emotions and skills through the

¹Sălăvăstru, D., *Psihologia educației*, Editura Polirom, Iași, 2004, p.178.

use of symbols (words, pictures, figures, diagrams²). Denis McQuail states that each of the definitions of Frank E.X. Dance emphasizes other parts of the communicative process: transmitter/receiver, intentionality, the linear/and the circular communication feature or its active/reactive perspective. Consequently, communication can be seen either as a transmission or reception process because messages can be sent without a specific recipient or may be perceived to have been passed unconsciously³.

A further aspect of the transmission-reception of messages is intentionality "a feature of communication acts in certain definitions"⁴. If we admit Intent as a prerequisite to transmission-reception of messages we can even exclude non-verbal communication.

In terms of process, communication can be seen as either a linear and unidirectional transmission of messages (school as a process), or as Palo Alto School, a circular interactive process. There are also both the active approach to communication, when the transmitter tries to influence the receiver, and the reactive perspective, when the transmitter accepts the influence and adapts to context.

Another communication approach is related to "interaction" as the mutual action of two bodies reflected by two pairs forces: action and reaction, defined by physicists. The interaction in Communication consists of the exchange of messages between people, or, using the terminology established between the transmitter and receiver in a circular and interactive process. By extrapolating this definition from physics to semiotics, we can assign communication the meaning of "semiotic interaction"⁵, especially if we consider the definition of being 'the process of transmitting information, ideas, emotions and skills through the use of symbols (words, pictures, figures, and diagrams) "expressed synthetically by the triad of symbol, speech and language. The many communication situations allow us to consider this process as being polysemic and simultaneously diversified and nuanced, and due to increasing intervention of modern techniques in human communication.

J. Fiske redefines communication in terms of interaction, adding the aspect of "social interaction through messages"⁶.

In conclusion, from the effective communication process perspective, correlated with the different ways of defining the message, two major schools can be delineated:

- School- as a process, where communication represents the linear message sender-receiver transmission, and the message results from communication, or better stated through coding-decoding processes;
- The Semiotic school where communication is understood as "the production and exchange of meanings"⁷, where the message is a construction of signs, which, by interacting with other receptors, generates meanings. The Semiotic School semiotic emphasizes communication both as a generator of meaning, as well as text messages interaction feedback from people, in order to produce meanings

²apud Fârte, Gh.I., *Comunicarea o abordare praxiologică*, Casa Editorială Demiurg, Iași, 2004, p.16.

³McQuail, D., *Comunicarea*, traducere de Daniela Rusu, prefață de Ioan Drăgan Institutul European, Iași, 1999, pp.15-16.

⁴*Idem*, p.17.

⁵Fârte, Gh.I., *op.cit*, p.17.

⁶Fiske, J., *Introducere în științele comunicării*, traducere de Monica Mitarcă, Editura Polirom, Iași, 2003, p.16.

⁷*Ibidem*, p.17.

Unlike School as a Process where communication is seen as a linear action of transmitting information between transmitter and receiver, the Semiotic School focuses on meanings so that they favour the reader instead of receiver, actively involving in the encoding/decoding text when creating meaning. Codification becomes signification, and decoding reaches the higher level of interpretation and understanding of texts. The Semiotic School operates with concepts of sign, significance, and meaning, to a deeper understanding of the transmitter intent and content of the sent message.

Regardless of the semiotic or social interaction approach, communication is a fascinating game of assumptions and subtle meanings that most people learn to perform in a more or less effective way. Difficulties arise especially when meanings are not clarified or when prerequisites are not checked, which is not always easy (common in the act of didactic and educational communication due to the miscommunication between teacher and some students).

As previously presented, interaction refers to the idea of a mutual action, as the word etymology. Applied to human relations, communication is a circular process in which every message, every behavior of a protagonist acts as a stimulus to the recipient and involves a feedback which in turn becomes the stimulus for the first. It's what might be expressed by the feedback. The concept of interaction is obviously inseparable from that of contexts, because the communication environment carries rules and codes that add specific features and would therefore meet all the influences an individual can experience in relation to linguistic and non-linguistic behavior of another individual, influencing its way of understanding and interpreting the communication. Interaction occurs only when the messages and assumptions of intention transmitter are clarified.

Besides the exchange of messages between the transmitter and receiver, the interaction includes feelings and perceptions as well. Thus, Interaction represents a process of communication between two or more persons where both linguistic meaning and emotional response are mutually clarified whenever this is required. For an effective interaction, establishing interpersonal relationships is more than necessary which induces that as partners know better, need of verification decreases. If a teacher knows his/her students well and is well met, misunderstandings can be avoided. We say that the teacher understands his/her students, which means that he/she does not misinterpret their intent, even if the language is inappropriate. In turn, and students will understand him/her, which shows their confidence in the teacher's intention to help and support. If the teacher does not know his/her students, there will not be an effective interaction, moreover, even crisis of confidence can occur.

The interaction of an individual with group of people is more difficult. Didactic communication, which is a direct and multipolar process, precisely illustrates this type of interaction, where the teacher will always ask how to facilitate understanding, if only verbal communication will be sufficient to influence understanding and maintain attention of the class. Consequently, before decoding the message, both the transmitter and the receiver will filter out messages through a number of personal "screens". During these "shielding" the teacher will ask questions about the communication situation (What do students expect from me? What level of language do I need to produce an impact on students?) and how it is perceived by students. (What impression will I do? Do students respect me?). In turn, the

student will ask questions like: Can I trust this teacher? How did he/she respond? How did he/she react to other students?

As the teacher issues the message, he/she is observing students feedback. If he/she perceives, after talking that the students are interested, he/she will be encouraged and motivated to issue more new messages. This means that the student is able to differentiate from the cognitive and emotional components of the message. Students may express interest, but at the same time may have difficulty in the message cognitive understanding. The interest perceived will cause the teacher make further efforts to clarify the content.

The definition of interaction therefore includes both emotional and cognitive communication. What is often ignored in classroom activities, is the emotional component. A sensitive teacher will help students to relate effectively; an insensitive one ignores the students' desire for communication. Sensitivity and mutual understanding in the communication process play valuable and important role.

In conclusion, successful communication depends on the appropriateness of the content and form of expression of the message to the ability of perception and understanding of the receiver, to his/her mood, and state of mind, the message being considered the symbol or group of symbols transmitted in our specific case from teacher to students.

Since we focus on the communication objectives and met targets, we can say that through writing, speaking, persuasion, and explanation, we bear in mind the following main goals: the receiver gets a clean, adapted, accessible and understandable message content; language used should be common for communication actors; permanent feedback obtained from receptors (messages cause a change in receptors attitude or behavior); to avoid distortions between the transmitter and receiver by synchronization of their activities.

Didactic Communication is like a theater scene where the teachers can have different roles: director, when developing their lesson plan and design their intervention/ teaching speech in written or oral form; actor and interpreter of information during the lesson, evaluator and negotiator. Students have a double role: as spectators and actors, actively participating along with the teacher to show the acquisition of knowledge, explanation and understanding.

Even if the teacher benefits are perennial in terms of transmitted information, the audience-classroom will challenge him/her to adopt ingenious solutions to explain and pass knowledge, as an interpreter of the speech for student teaching.

Given the fact that in present our educational system forwards learning skills centered education, it is essential that students understand the conveyed knowledge. Only in this way they will know what they speak, what to do, how to do it and especially how to apply what they have learned.

Thus starting from the question *What should the teacher do for students to understand what they are presented?*, we conducted a survey where through qualitative (document analysis) and quantitative (data processing inquiries performed) research methods, we assessed the effective and efficient solutions.

Moreover, my concerns have been related to the way the didactic message structure influences understanding, interpretation / integration and relating to previous knowledge by explanation and argumentation according to the possibilities and expectations of each actor of the teaching act.

Methodology Highlights

The objective of this research was to identify the levels of understanding of teaching communication

However, in this paper, we intend to focus on one of the research objectives, namely to analyze the relationship between the lesson plan which is developed for each hour and the actual process of teaching and learning (in the classroom). Expertise and teaching practice showed us that there is an inverse relationship between the number of set objectives and those actually met by the end of the class. The same type of relationship is maintained between the number of set objectives and content understanding by students.

In this context, the working hypothesis is related to the following issue: there are differences between the developed lesson plan and what actually takes place in the classroom

The target group consists of teachers who teach in the grammar school education. The dependent variable is the understanding and the independent claimed variables, specific to the teaching profession will be: the academic rank, level of education, rural or urban origin of the school, the existence of local universities to improve teaching and providing specialist. Ultimately, the solutions identified are represented by a model of understanding and the effects of its application can be measured by analyzing the impact on the students, as the ultimate beneficiaries of any educational endeavor.

The Group of subjects was represented by a total of 145 teachers who teach in grammar schools and high schools in the counties of: BH, BN, CS, DJ, HD, IL, IS, MH and Bucharest, of average age- 43.7 years and average work experience of 17.7 years in education.

a) Counties of origin from which teachers gathered the lesson plans, meet the criteria of different areas, all the geographical and historical relevant country areas being covered.

b) As mentioned, the lesson plans were received from teachers who teach both in schools / high schools in urban and rural areas. The high number of lesson plans from urban areas is due to the fact that at a national level, the number of teachers employed in urban areas is higher than that of rural areas.

c) Nowadays in education, the number of employed junior teachers is increasingly smaller, so that the average age of employed staff significantly increased. Because lifelong learning and training of staff in secondary education is supported by the MEN, most teachers have teaching degrees. In our target group 50,7% have 1st didactic degree; 38,2% 2nd degree; 8,1% are senior teachers and 2,9% completed juniors.

We chose to analyze lesson plans for the VIIth and IXth grade as the study of chemistry - as a subject at secondary level begins in the seventh grade and most of the contents of the first year of study, are repeated and developed at the high school level in the IXth grade. Another reason is the fact that in these stages of initiation into the study of chemistry, the importance of teaching content is crucial for students. In these years they decide the "fate" of this object, in the sense of understanding or not the taught content and furthermore, of including chemistry class in the student likes or dislikes. That is why, at this stage, the influence of the teacher is crucial. Later, student comprehension will be marked by many more actions.

Of the total number of teaching projects / lesson plans, about half are made for the VIIth class. In many cases, especially in rural areas, the same teacher teaches both cycles.

d) Regarding the presence of universities in the resident counties, the distribution is approximately even in terms of the number of lesson plans / on the county. The four counties (BH, CS, DJ, IS) and Bucharest have universities but 4 counties have no universities, however, in municipalities of residence state and private universities branches operate. (BN, HD, IL MH).

After studying school documents (curricula, syllabi, annual and half-yearly planning calendar), in **the first stage** of research, we asked from the mentioned teachers group, chemistry lesson plans developed for topic "Electron shell of the atom," which class is taught both at the seventh and ninth grade. We chose this lesson because the high level of abstractization of the taught knowledge requires mastery by the teacher, since it is difficult for students to understand the concepts of layer, substrate, orbital, atomic energy, electron layer energy and to apply the rules of employment and electron filling layers.

We then proceeded to analyze the content of plans to identify steps "theoretical / script" made by the teacher to facilitate the understanding of knowledge provided: whether or not they meet the curricula; if properly formulate the operational objectives; their number; and the used strategies during teaching.

Phase II of the research was to develop a questionnaire covering issues of design activity of the teacher (their written-practical report in other words, to what extent the plan / the lesson draft corresponds with what is actually done in the class, determining the optimal number of operational objectives for each lesson).

To verify the hypothesis which assumes the existence of differences between developed lesson plan and what actually performs the class, I asked for responses to several întrebări. Ne will stop but only on a few of them:

1. To what extent the lesson plan is a fundamental part of the work of the teacher?

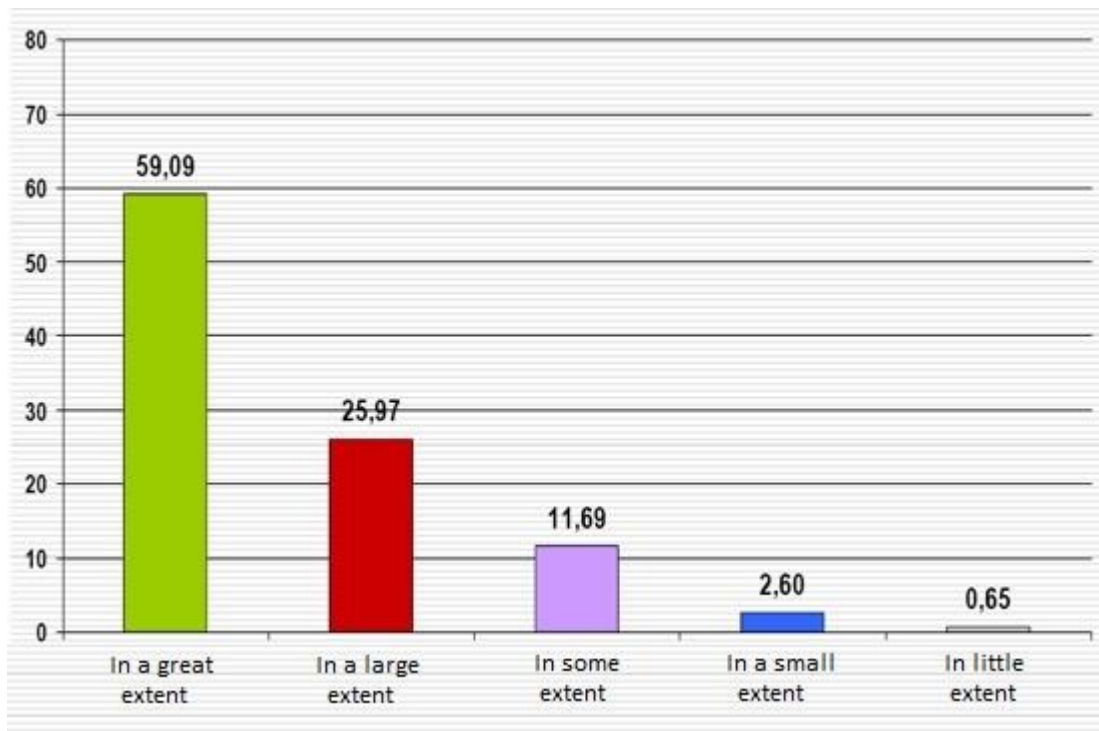
Only 5 teachers downplayed the role of planning in the work of the teachers, 18 gave a share "average importance" and 131, considered it of a very high (91) and great (40) importance.

We should mention the fact that of the five teachers who gave importance to planning, four have the 1st teaching degree, meaning for them planning may be no longer a priority, due to their great experience, and to the fact that they never had attraction for this stage of planning lessons.

A statistical analysis performed on the academic degrees basis, shows following distributions: 62,50% of respondents of the 1st degree teachers felt that planning is a fundamental part of the work as a teacher; 54, 17% of those with IIInd grade; 57, 87% senior teachers and 50% trainees had the same choice. For the 1st Option, there were few 1st degree teachers and the percentage decreased significantly compared to the previous situation, being 23.96%; of the IIInd Grade II 33.33%; chose this response; 21.05% of senior teachers and 20% completed junior. To a certain extent, fewer responded positively to planning, the highest value being 30% for juniors and increasingly lower degree for teachers (15.71% completed, 12.50% IIIndgrade and 9, 38% degree).

These figures reinforce the importance of didactic planning. It is true that the 1st grade teachers low percentage is very large - and largely can be put and to the fact that this stage of their teaching career developing lesson plans is not compulsory, but we tend to think that

whatever teaching experience may be, lesson planning guarantees a logical link between topics, updating teacher knowledge, making teaching efficient, especially for student understanding.

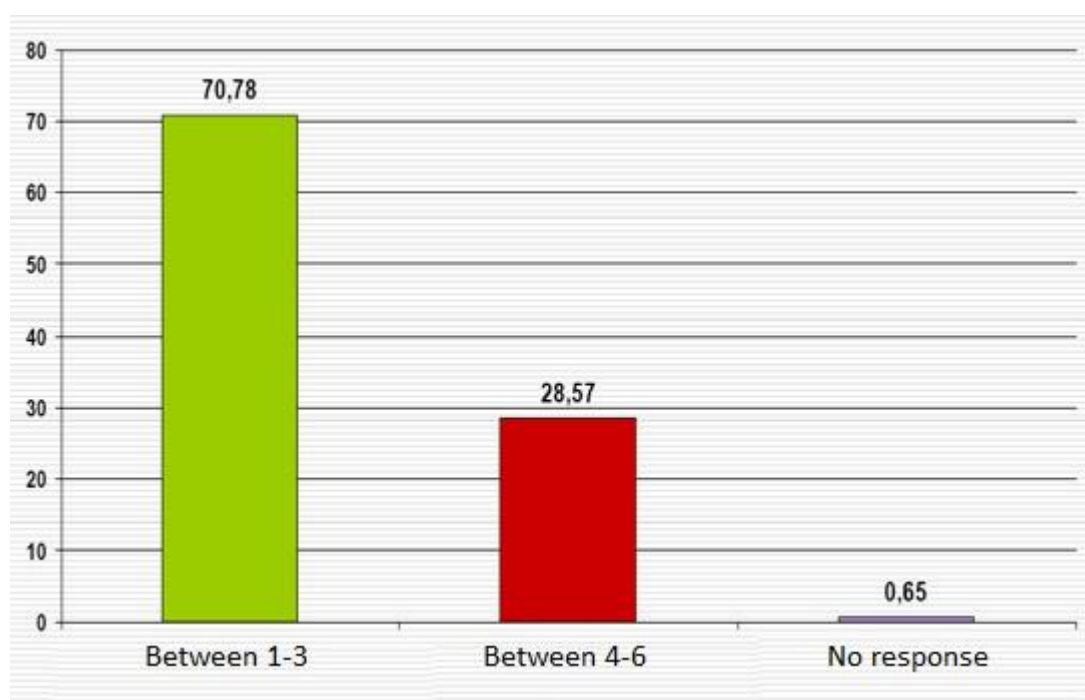


2. Which do you think would be the average optimal number of operational objectives for a lesson?

Among the teachers who have opted for an estimated 4-6 operational objectives for the lesson, the distribution of responses on the criterion teaching degrees drew attention our attention. Thus, 11.11% are trainees; 31.58% seniors; 29.17% were second degree and 27.08% 1st grade.

We believe that the highest percentage (of senior teachers), is due to the fact that at the early teaching career, they are still under the influence of quantitative elements, meaning that many seek to achieve a lot during the lesson, which may result in a lower understanding of the transmitted knowledge, since there is insufficient time for explanation. As they reach higher levels of the teaching career, it is observed that the percentage decreases (being lower at the 1st degree teachers to those with second degree), proving that the focus is gradually changing from quantity to quality, a claim supported by the percentage of 72.92% of 1st degree teachers who chose an optimal number of 1 to 3 operational objectives. There are decreasing values for senior teachers (68, 42%) who chose the same.

In conclusion, we can state that the teachers appreciate the usefulness of operational objectives, consider as optimal the establishment of a number of 1 to 3 operational objectives /lesson from the point of view of its success (the fulfillment of set objectives and quantify the degree of compliance with feed-back obtained from students)and in terms of understanding the information/ knowledge transmitted to students.

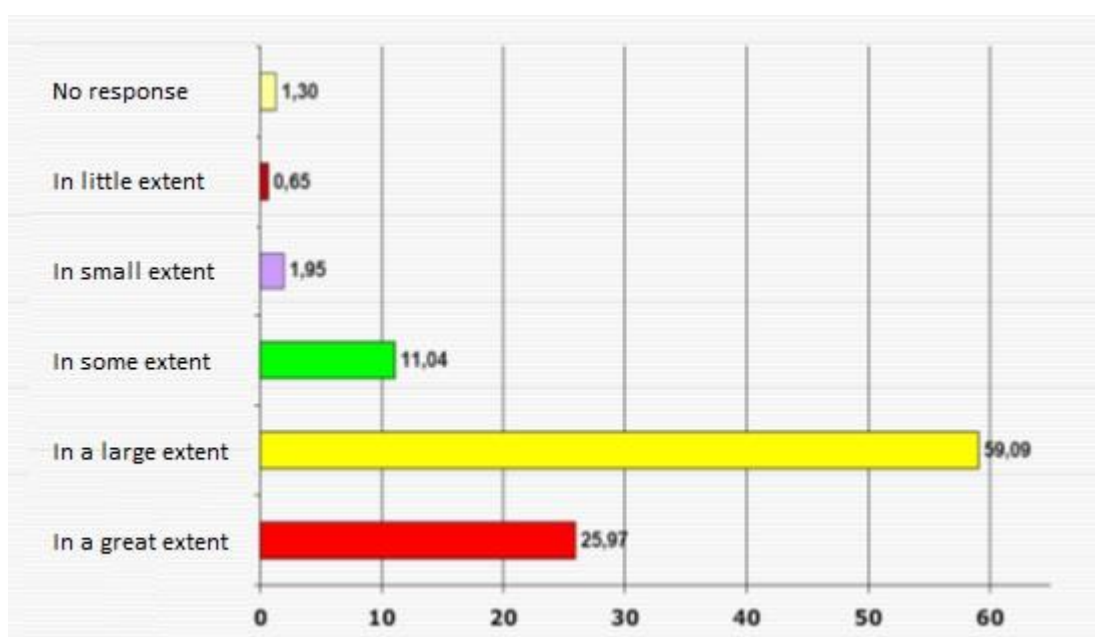


In this sense, for example, primary understanding and interpretation can become full comprehension levels. Proposed analogy is based on the statements of Paul Cornea⁸ on the stages of understanding, stating that there is a first stage, which is elementary and automatic, in which understanding occurs typically when communicating with others is spontaneous, based on accepted conventions and a second stage called interpretation, where the meanings are assumed, based on each other own judgments. Likewise, the interpretation is not only the excellence result of initial understanding, but it complements it and improves its action.

3. In which extent does your plan/lesson draft correspond with what you actually do in class?

It is interesting to observe the direction of increase/ decrease of percentage values for options „in a great extent” from 24.21% Ist degree; 29.17% IInd degree to 36.84% senior degree or "in a large extent" from 42.11% senior; 62.50% IInd grade, the 63.16% Ist grade. These values show that senior teachers want to meet the lesson plan more than Ist degree teachers, in other words, as experience increases, the empirical role in teaching becomes more important, and also enhances teacher flexibility and adaptability to context, to the actual conditions of the classroom.

⁸Cornea P., *Interpretare și raționalitate*, Editura Polirom, Iași, 2006, p.72.



Of the above, the conclusion that clearly emerges is that the lesson plan/ draft largely corresponds to what is happening in the classroom, for our approach this aspect being of particular importance, supported by the percentage of 59, 09% of respondents who acknowledged and supported through arguments of different types that there are differences between developed lesson plan and what is happening in the classroom, thus confirming the hypothesis of our research. Moreover, at this stage, the context has an considerable impact on the understanding of the knowledge the teacher wants to convey during the lesson.

Conclusions:

The present approach to communication was twofold: one is of the School of Palo Alto, which supports the impossibility of not communicating, a true perfect aspect of the teaching profession and the other is the praxiologalone, which allowed us to treat communication as a semiotic interaction through signs and taking the thesis that understanding the message is determined by its construction.

During the research we tried to constantly respond to the question: *What should the teacher do for students to understand the transmitted knowledge?*

In order to reach that agreement between "words" teacher and cognitive set, namely students' experience as a pre - condition of the understanding, the first step that must be done is the construction of the teaching message. In this sense, knowing what and how to "tell " adapted to specific age and individual peculiarities, the teacher will need to his/her design educational intervention on study years, semesters, units of study and lessons/ classes .So the information / knowledge transmitted to students are neither chaotic nor random, but they follow a coherent , developed over time, the stages of development and levels of education, which is in the national curriculum. This selection of information sent to students in the acquisition of knowledge has led us to review the option of lesson plans. I wanted for the actual construction phase of the didactic message, to actually see what the teacher is saying.

Our work would not have been purposeful if we had stopped at this stage. Once built, after a rigorous design, the message must be sent, in order to be received, processed and

possibly memorized by the student. I used the word "possibly" because only if the student understands the information is remembered and information is understood when complying with validity criterion. From this point, there is a need to answer to the following questions *How much does the teacher say?* and *How does the teacher say?*

This is why the first question in the questionnaire continued the teaching planning topic, in the sense of trying to honestly determine the design-implementation report. Certainly, it would be desirable that what is designed to be fulfilled as well, but this would mean to neglect a major influencing factor in the understanding: context, or in common terminology, the reality of the classroom. The 59.09% percent of teachers who chose „in a great extent" option demonstrates the real ratio between theory and practice.

To what effect? Unfortunately (for evaluators of educational policy), the effects will not be immediate. They feel much later through a consistent application of effective models of explanation, argumentation and enhancement of school contents.

The vital importance of communication for education is unanimously accepted. However, we wanted to highlight its importance in the educational process, as the source and condition of the understanding, as the bridge to the interpretation, which are the guarantors of any successful business.

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METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND THE STUDENT'S SELF-EVALUATION

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Abstract: This article explores the students' apprehension of learning, the manner the use metacognitive strategies to adjust the learning process and to facilitate self-guided learning and self-evaluation. Our aim was to compare the students' level of knowledge of their own learning style and attitude towards self-evaluation, which has been identified based on a satisfaction scale and their academic performance. The study was conducted on a sample of 76 students from the 2nd year of study, attending different study programmes of "Aurel Vlaicu" University of Arad. The conclusions of our research suggest that the students' approach of learning can be changed by having a different perspective of training, assigned tasks and teaching-evaluation methods.

Keywords: students, metacognitive strategies, self-guided learning, self-evaluation.

Introducere

Plasarea din perspectivă psiho-pedagogică a analizei domeniului strategiilor metacognitive ne solicită la reflecții asupra aplicabilității în cadrul învățării și evaluării a principiilor de funcționalitate metacognitivă. Numeroase studii recente în domeniu prezintă dovezi pertinente privind rolul cheie al proceselor metacognitive în asigurarea eficienței învățării [9]. Eficiența activităților realizate, implicit a activităților de învățare este asigurată, în mare măsură de posibilitatea antrenării, valorificării capacităților metacognitive. Succesul este determinat de cele mai multe ori de posibilitatea de monitorizare, control și reglare a propriei activități. Metacogniția însoțește activitatea celui care învață, oferind acestuia posibilitatea de a reflecta asupra propriei cunoașteri și de a identifica informații utile pentru activitatea respectivă și pentru cele viitoare. Prin utilizarea unor strategii metacognitive, studentul devine conștient de propria sa activitate mentală.

Delimitări conceptuale

Dinamica socio-economică și interculturalitatea lumii contemporane a determinat schimbări majore la nivelul politicilor educaționale privind învățământul superior și la nivelul mentalităților și practicilor educative.

În explicarea învățării se observă o progresivă deplasare a accentului de la determinanții externi la determinanții endogeni sau proveniți din interiorul individului. Accentul pus pe subiect, pe interioritatea lui, înțelege nu doar ca organizare care răspunde specific la anumite influențe ci și ca organizare care modelează, ca sistem complex, cu o mare capacitate de autoorganizare, oferă noi fundamente pentru acceptarea și explicarea nevoii individului de a învăța continuu, independent toată viața.

P. R. Pintrich și M. Zeidner [14] definesc învățarea auto-reglatoare (self-regulated learning) ca un ansamblu de strategii pe care le folosesc studenții pentru a-și însuși cunoștințele și pentru a-și controla învățarea. Modele recente ale învățării auto-reglatoare pun accent pe integrarea ambelor componente ale învățării: componenta motivațională și cognitivă. Există un număr mare de modele ale învățării auto-reglatoare care derivă dintr-o varietate de perspective

teoretice: majoritatea modelelor consideră că un aspect important al SRL (self-regulated learning) este utilizarea unei game variate de strategii cognitive și metacognitive de către student pentru a controla și regla învățarea. Modelul propus de P.R. Pintrich [14] include trei categorii generale de strategii: strategii cognitive de învățare; strategii metacognitive și auto-reglatoare; strategii de management a resurselor.

Cercetările realizate privind strategiile de învățare autonomă a studenților [11] au identificat două modalități principale în abordarea învățării de către studenți: abordarea de suprafață și abordarea în profunzime [16].

Abordarea în profunzime a învățării implică stabilirea de conexiuni între noile informații și cele vechi, organizarea și structurarea ideilor principale ale textului, scheme cognitive de restructurare, de focalizare pe dovezi și argumente, pe stabilirea de conexiuni personale cu experiența din lumea reală. Studenții care adoptă o abordare profundă sunt motivați intrinsec în procesul de învățare, încearcă să extragă semnificații din ceea ce au învățat [8] și să utilizeze abilitățile lor metacognitive pentru a monitoriza și regla învățarea [3]. Abordarea în profunzime este corelată cu existența intenției de a înțelege .

Abordarea de suprafață a învățării implică memorare de informații, fără reflecție și interpretare personală din partea studenților, dificultatea de a diferenția conceptele generale, principiile de dovezi și argumente pe care se bazează [7]. Studenții care dezvoltă o abordare de suprafață a învățării sunt motivați extrinsec, în special de teama de eșec [2]. Abordarea de suprafață a învățării presupune intenția elevului de a îndeplini cerințele activității de învățare. Accentul se pune pe unele "semne", cum ar fi textul în sine și pe elementele secundare, cum ar fi memorarea pentru evaluare. Combinația de concepte și fapte nu este realizată pe baza unei reflecții aprofundate. Studenții nu reușesc să distingă între principii și elementele empirice care au determinat formularea lor, între vechi și nou. Sarcinile de învățare sunt considerate constrângeri externe, iar cunoașterea este percepută ca ceva diferit de realitatea de zi cu zi [15].

Pentru a rezuma, strategia de învățare în profunzime presupune o analiză critică a ideilor noi, asocierea acestora cu conceptele și principiile deja cunoscute și utilizarea rezultatelor obținute prin realizarea înțelegerii și a reținerii pe termen lung a informațiilor în rezolvarea problemelor în contexte noi, utilizând capacitatea de transfer. Prin contrast, învățarea de suprafață se referă la acceptarea tacită a informațiilor și memorarea de fapte izolate fără a realiza legături între acestea și viața reală.

Educația pentru autoformare și implicarea strategiilor metacognitive pe tot parcursul procesului de învățare este corelată în mai multe studii cu formarea competenței autoevaluative. (Ketele de J.-M., Allal L., Cardinet, J., Perrenoud, P. Delorme, C. Ungureanu, D.)

Exigențele unei evaluări formative arată că autoevaluarea are o eficacitate sporită din punct de vedere cognitiv și afectiv, determinând studenții să-și evalueze propriile reprezentări, structuri cognitive, motivațiile interne sau externe, facilitând aplicațiile și implicând studenții să-și autoevalueze interesele, devenind instrumentul principal în autogestionarea învățării. Sistemul de reglare al procesului autoevaluativ este asigurat prin intermediul a trei funcții ordonate [10: 125] care au ca finalitate:

- Recunoașterea Reușitelor;
- Reperarea și Recunoașterea erorilor;

- Reajustarea strategiilor și Rectificarea.

Evaluarea formativă ca dispoziție complexă, face din eroare un obiect de studiu pentru student și nu un obiect de culpabilitate sau de resemnare, ceea ce determină în aceeași măsură, dezvoltarea proceselor autoreglării și autoevaluării. Este evidențiat procesul formării unei capacități de învățare active, independente prin acordarea unui timp mai mare evaluării formative (extinse) în economia activităților, fiind un mijloc important pentru autocunoaștere, autocontrol, autoapreciere a evoluției și autoreglare a conduitei cognitive.

Pentru formarea capacității de autoevaluare studenții sunt încurajați să reflecteze la propria învățare și la rezultatele obținute cu scopul de a îmbunătăți modul în care învață. Autoevaluarea nu se reduce la autocorectare, fiind un proces prin care subiectul monitorizează și judecă calitatea gândirii și comportamentul pe parcursul învățării și identifică unele strategii de reducere a decalajului între performanța obținută și cea dorită. Procesul autoevaluativ determină preluarea controlului privind evaluarea propriului proces de învățare. În această situație învățarea devine ghidată de metacogniție, o acțiune strategică, planificată, organizată, monitorizată și evaluată față de anumite criterii, standarde. Prin autoevaluare se realizează internalizarea standardelor de evaluare, stimulându-se motivația și responsabilizarea în învățare.

Un alt aspect relevant pentru autoevaluare este acela că determină întărirea încrederii persoanei în ea însăși, „stabilind suporturi de natură să favorizeze progresii la îndemâna sa: astfel, formarea și probarea, dezvoltarea și securizarea (cu diagnostic al probabilităților în ciuda dificultăților și cu pronostic al demersurilor ce s-ar adapta cel mai bine) sunt în articulare directă cu evaluarea formativă”, aprecia Andre de Peretti [13: 125].

Esența demersului autoevaluativ care poate fi dezvoltat la studenți prin evaluarea formativă exinsă constă în determinarea și responsabilizarea studentului pentru a deveni actor al propriei sale formări.

Metode

Demersul investigativ propus în cercetare este de factură cantitativă, urmărind să identifice strategiile de învățare aplicate și nivelul de dezvoltare al competențelor autoevaluative în cazul studenții înscriși la programul de studii psihopedagogice de certificare pentru profesia didactică.

Obiectivele cercetării

- Investigarea nivelului competențelor autoevaluative ale studenților;
- Determinarea caracteristicilor strategiilor de învățare predominante la studenți;
- Identificarea, sau nu, a unor diferențe între studenți în funcție de modul de abordare a învățării și de nivelul de formare a capacității de autoevaluare.

Ipoteză: Dacă studenții au dezvoltată competența autoevaluativă atunci realizează cu succes abordarea în profunzime a învățării.

Metode și instrumente de cercetare

În vederea realizării cercetării am aplicat metoda anchetei, utilizând ca instrument o scală pentru identificarea atitudinilor și percepțiilor privind autoevaluarea. Această scală cuprinde 40 de enunțuri în legătură cu modul de înțelegere a procesului de învățare și de raportare la autoevaluare.

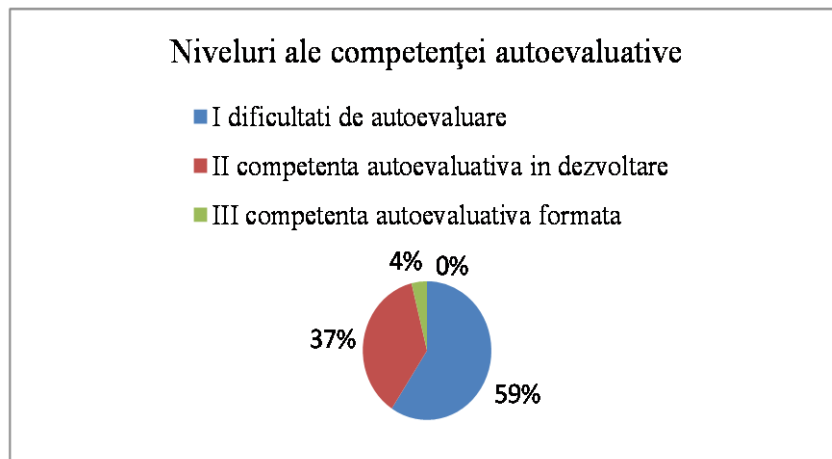
În cadrul cercetării, studenții au primit ca sarcină de lucru să citească un text cu caracter științific și apoi au răspuns în scris la întrebări care vizau înțelegerea. Răspunsurile au fost plasate pe o scară de la 1-4, unde 1 însemna un nivel foarte scăzut de înțelegere și 4 un nivel ridicat de înțelegere, corespunzător unei abordări în profunzime a învățării.

Grup țintă: eșantionul de cercetare a fost format din 76 studenți din anul II de la diferite specializările, înscriși la programul de studii psihopedagogice de certificare pentru profesia didactică. Metoda de eșantionare folosită este o metoda neprobabilistă, neaplicându-se proceduri statistice standard. Tipul de eșantionare neprobabilistă folosit este eșantionarea orientată, fiind selectați studenți din cadrul programului de studii psihopedagogice de certificare pentru profesia didactică, considerând ca aceștia dispun de mai multe cunoștințe despre învățare și pot formula informații relevante.

Analiza și interpretarea datelor:

Pe baza analizei scalelor de apreciere putem evidenția nivelurile de formare a capacității de autoevaluare a studenților, conform punctajelor obținute. Majoritatea subiecților (59,2%) obțin un punctaj care se înscrie sub limita de 29 puncte, ceea ce denotă conștientizarea dificultăților în autoevaluarea procesului și a rezultatelor învățării. Doar un număr redus de studenți (3,9%) demonstrează o bună competență autoevaluativă. Aceste rezultate scot în evidență slabele competențe autoevaluative ale studenților care pot fi generate atât de neimplicarea studenților în măsură suficientă în procesul evaluării cât și de dezinteresul acestora față de procesul învățării. Primul grafic reprezintă procentual repartitia studenților pe cele trei niveluri ale formării competenței autoevaluative așa cum rezultă din interpretarea scalelor de autoevaluare aplicate.

Fig 1. *Reprezentarea grafică a procentelor obținute privind formarea competenței autoevaluative*



Este posibil ca studenții care au un nivel scăzut de formare a competenței autoevaluative să întâmpine dificultăți în activitatea de învățare deoarece succesul presupune, în acest caz, o abordare reflexivă a procesului formativ și a dezvoltării personale.

Interpretarea răspunsurilor studenților la întrebările care vizau înțelegerea unui text cu caracter științific confirmă faptul că marea majoritate a studenților (60%) nu dezvoltă o abordare în profunzime a învățării având dificultăți de înțelegere cauzală, de transfer și aplicabilitate practică a informațiilor citite. Graficul care simbolizează gestionarea studiului

reflectă o dificultate percepută de studenți față de încadrarea lor în termene, stabilirea obiectivelor și estimarea efortului depus pentru realizarea sarcinilor. Cu toate acestea, peste 40% dintre studenți conștientizează faptul că învățarea este o activitate care presupune organizare din perspectivă personală.

Fig 2. *Reprezentarea grafică a procentelor obținute privind abordarea în profunzime a învățării*

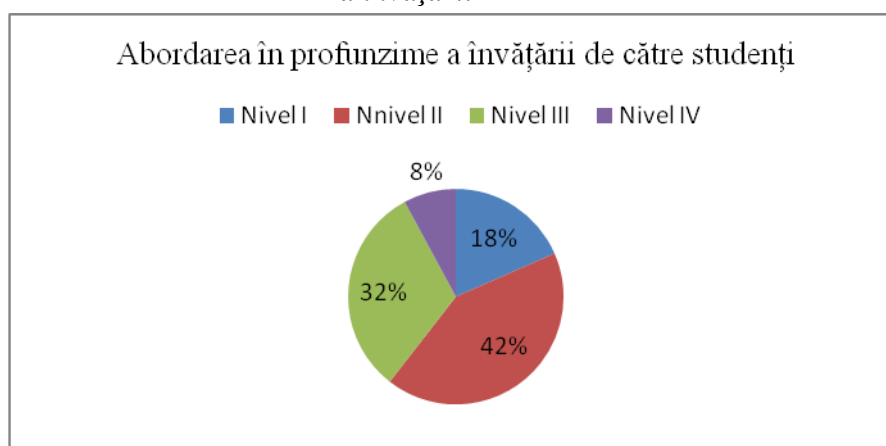
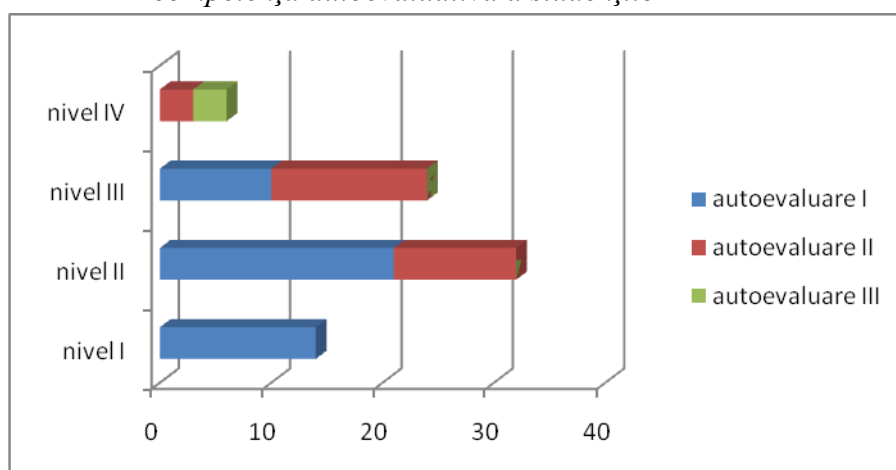


Fig 3. *Reprezentarea grafică a relației între abordarea în profunzime a învățării și competența autoevaluativă a studenților*



Analiza graficului de mai sus reflectă clar faptul că o bună formare a competenței autoevaluative determină la studenți o atitudine reflexivă asupra învățării, facilitează monitorizarea, controlul și reglarea propriei activități și abordarea cu succes a învățării în profunzime.

Concluzii

Analiza rezultatelor cercetării a determinat identificarea unor aspecte care facilitează procesul formării competenței autoevaluative a studenților și implicarea strategiilor metacognitive în învățare:

- Schimbarea atitudinilor și percepțiilor negative ale studenților față de învățare și evaluare;
- Elaborarea unor criterii și standarde de evaluare și autoevaluare în colaborare cu studenții;

- Dezvoltarea unei atitudini reflexive privind strategiile metacognitive implicate în învățare și gestionarea eficientă a acestei activități de către studenți;
- Dezvoltarea unei atitudini autoreflexive privind competența autoevaluativă;
- Însușirea pe cale inductivă a strategiilor de abordare în profunzime a învățării printr-o metodologie didactică de tip interactiv, critic, subiectiv;
- Realizarea permanentă de exerciții de interevaluare și autoevaluare pe baza unor criterii acceptate și unitare.

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INCREASING EFFICIENCY IN EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATION THROUGH INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCES

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Abstract: Educational practice permanently demonstrates the importance of taking up models of good practice in terms of teaching components. Of these models, those oriented towards the optimization of communication in educational contexts represent a very significant category, as new challenges constantly arise in the teacher-student, teacher-family or student-student relationship, determined not only by the educational offer-expectations balance, but also by the characteristics of those involved in the steps of pedagogical training, with a strong cultural footprint.

In this complex setting of a society becoming more open to multicultural and intercultural influences, the school must effectively integrate teaching strategies and elements of educational content that favor the development of learners. Educational communication, in report to the many correlated aspects, can be supported by the intercultural experience of teachers or students that, thanks to the various elements of culture, tradition, spirituality with which they have been in contact over time, can work optimally in order to support an efficient educational activity.

Keywords: intercultural experiences; educational context; efficient communication; culture; multiculturalism.

Fundamente teoretice

În prezent, cultura suportă implicații majore datorită globalizării vieții politice, economice și sociale. În aceste condiții indivizii se află frecvent în situația de a-și modifica propriile valori culturale, percepții și judecăți, în cadrul experiențelor de viață sau de educație, ce presupun interacțiuni multiculturale, care stau la baza interculturalității.

Multiculturalitatea și interculturalitatea trebuie luate în considerare în construirea unui mediu educațional funcțional și tolerant, în care comunicarea interumană îndeplinește un rol esențial. Începând din anii 1980, comunicarea a devenit un domeniu de interes major, fiind asociată frecvent cu conceptul de competență comunicativă, adăugându-se treptat noțiunea de *comunicare transnațională* (noțiune utilizată pentru prima dată de Manfred Bock, la Conferința Asociației pentru Limbi Străine Moderne, în 1982). Acest termen reflectă nu doar relația dintre două limbi străine ci și o anumită cultură de origine a acestora. Practic nu putem separa comunicarea de cultură, iar într-un mediu multicultural, comunicarea trebuie să se asocieze permanent particularităților culturale ale actanților comunicării. Interculturalitatea se sprijină pe interacțiune lingvistică deoarece, așa cum aprecia E. Sapir încă de la începutul secolului XX, „limba nu există în afara culturii, adică în afara angrenajului moștenit social de practici și credințe care determină textura vieților noastre” (Sapir, E., 1921, p.100).

În această accepțiune, trebuie să privim competența interculturală în strânsă corelație cu cea comunicațională, într-un proces de învățare și transformare culturală și interculturală, prin care omul se poate adapta la o altă cultură. Aceasta implică însă și preexistența sau dezvoltarea unor *abilități de comunicare* – ce favorizează interacțiunea dintre indivizi, dincolo de diferențele culturale care îi definesc; *elemente cognitive* ce conduc la o gândire logică, flexibilă, orientată spre elemente axiologice, de valorizare a informațiilor selectate din

patrimoniul altor culturi; o anumită *sensibilizare interculturală* care permite acceptarea elementelor cu adevărat prețioase specifice altor culturi (Rakotomena, 2005).

Pentru atingerea acestui scop trebuie să luăm în discuție principiile pedagogiei constructiviste, care aduce în prim-planul formării nu doar preluarea de-a gata a ideilor și opiniilor educatorului sau diverșilor susținători ai unor teorii explicative raportate la contextul educațional, ci și experiența concretă a celui care învață, în cadrul căreia își formează propriile păreri și argumente care dovedesc capacitatea sa de a învăța activ. Din acest motiv am apreciat că elementele interculturale experiențiale pot să susțină cu mai mare impact demersurile de realizare ale unui proces educațional eficient. Interacțiunea (în special cea din cadre formale), cu tot ceea ce înseamnă elemente ale unor culturi diferite poate să influențeze viziunea despre lume, modul de percepere și înțelegere a celor din jur, respectul pentru elementele de diversitate (Clanet, C., 1993).

Pornind de la aceste considerente am apreciat că în realizarea dezideratelor unei formări interculturale în cadrul învățământului românesc este necesar să exploatăm experiența cadrelor didactice sau educabililor care au activat sau au participat la activități educaționale în sisteme educaționale străine, în contextul unor activități profesionale sau axate pe schimb de experiență. Experiența interculturală ar permite achiziționarea de informații care sprijină adaptarea la mediu, dar și scăderea gradului de vulnerabilitate în fața unor situații noi, necunoscute, de interacțiune cu elemente diferite de cultură.

Metode

Ca metodă de bază a cercetării am utilizat ancheta pe bază de chestionar. Au fost elaborate și administrate două chestionare: unul adresat cadrelor didactice și al doilea adresat elevilor și studenților. Itemii celor două chestionare au fost în parte similari, dar adaptați nivelului de pregătire și experiență a celor două categorii de participanți. Am încercat să înregistrez aspecte care au contribuit la optimizarea, în general, a activității didactice, precum ar fi:

- gradul în care experiența interculturală a condus la identificarea și clarificarea unor stereotipuri, prejudecăți etc. prezente în diferite spații culturale;
- măsura în care experiența interculturală dobândită a determinat formarea unor deprinderi comportamentale impuse de diversitatea culturală;
- gradul de ameliorare a dimensiunii comunicative în spațiul educațional, ca rezultat al experienței interculturale;
- ameliorarea dimensiunii cognitive și a celei afective în spațiul educațional, ca rezultat al experienței interculturale;
- măsura în care experiența interculturală a condus la formarea de atitudini intergrupale pozitive în spațiul educațional;
- exemple de situații educaționale în care s-a valorificat optim experiența culturală a grupurilor etnice cu care s-a interacționat.

Participanți

Cercetarea noastră a vizat două loturi de participanți, selectați intenționat, în acord cu problematica ce ne-a interesat. Primul lot a fost constituit din cadre didactice care au susținut sau au participat la activități educaționale în cadrul unor programe desfășurate în sisteme de

învățămant din afara României. Al doilea lot de subiecți a fost constituit din elevi și studenți care au avut ocazia să participe la programe de educație în afara țării. Caracteristicile loturilor de subiecți au fost determinate în acord cu răspunsurile la întrebările factuale din chestionar.

Prin urmare, lotul de subiecți format din cadre didactice a cuprins un număr de 68 de persoane. Dintre acestea 6 lucrează în învățămantul preșcolar, 4 în învățămantul primar, 11 în învățămantul gimnazial, 13 în învățămantul liceal și 34 în învățămantul superior. Precizez faptul că, numărul profesorilor care au lucrat efectiv în sistemele educaționale ale altor țări fiind relativ redus, am extins eșantionul și la nivelul cadrelor didactice care nu au avut contracte de muncă în străinătate, ci au participat la diferite formări profesionale și schimburi de experiență. În ceea ce privește vechimea în învățămant a acestora, 5 au sub 3 ani vechime, 29 au o vechime între 3-5 ani, 12 între 5-10 ani, iar 22 au o vechime mai mare de 10 ani. Țările în care cadrele didactice au profesat în domeniul educațional (sau în care au avut ocazia să interacționeze intercultural în cadrul unor activități educaționale) au fost: SUA (pentru un număr de 17 persoane), Germania – 15 persoane, Franța – 11 persoane, Canada – 8 persoane, Italia – 5 persoane, Australia – 4 persoane, Marea Britanie – 4 persoane, Elveția, Austria, Grecia și Spania – câte 1 persoană. Intervalul de timp în care au interacționat intercultural în cadrul unor activități educaționale în afara sistemului educațional românesc a fost cuprins între 2 ani și 6 săptămâni (am exclus din eșantionul de subiecți cazurile care au avut experiențe sub 6 săptămâni, apreciind că nu există un impact reprezentativ în urma unor interrelaționări culturale de scurtă durată). Așadar, 6 dintre cadrele didactice chestionate au predat în străinătate în jur de 2 ani, 3 dintre acestea au predat între 1 an și jumătate și 2 ani, 9 – aproximativ 1 an, 23 au avut experiențe educaționale în jur de 6 luni, 13 – aproximativ 3 luni, iar un număr de 14 profesori au avut ocazia să experimenteze activități educaționale pe o durată mai scurtă de 3 luni. În privința modalității prin care profesorii au avut acces la experiențe educaționale în alte țări decât România, 16 au precizat că au fost angajați cu contract de muncă, pe o perioadă determinată, 33 au participat la aceste activități prin programe de formare profesională (Leonardo da Vinci, Comenius, Erasmus, Grundtvig ș.a.) iar 19 au efectuat diverse schimburi de experiență prin instituția angajatoare.

Un alt aspect care ne-a interesat a fost cel al naționalității, respectiv al etniei copiilor cu care aceste cadre didactice au lucrat sau lucrează în România, însemnând că există oportunitatea de a interfera mai multe culturi în contextul educațional. Prin urmare, am constatat faptul că 12 cadre didactice au menționat că lucrează cu copii de etnie maghiară, 9 au menționat copii de etnie germană, 6 – copii de etnie ucraineană, 31- copii de etnie rromă. Un număr de 10 cadre didactice au menționat și alte naționalități sau etnii ale copiilor pe care îi educă, cum ar fi italiană, filipineză sau franceză. Precizăm faptul că am specificat în chestionar să fie luați în calcul și copiii care s-au născut în România dar au plecat în străinătate cu părinții și au revenit în sistemul educațional românesc după o perioadă de timp în care au fost incluși în programe educaționale în țările în care au trăit, dar și copiii care s-au născut în alte țări, apoi s-au înscris în sistemul nostru de învățămant. Am urmărit și aceste aspecte deoarece cultura unor țări în care copiii au avut ocazia să trăiască o perioadă de timp de cel puțin un an își poate lăsa amprenta asupra formării lor.

Al doilea lot de subiecți a fost format din 57 elevi și studenți. Dintre aceștia, 13 sunt înscriși în învățămantul gimnazial, 18 în învățămantul liceal și 26 sunt studenți. Precizez că am intenționat să administrez chestionarul și unor elevi din ciclul primar, dar în urma unor

aplicări-test am concluzionat că nu sunt îndeajuns de maturi pentru a reflecta asupra impactului avut de experiențele interculturale, ceea ce m-a determinat să renunț la acest segment de populație. Țările în care elevii și studenții au învățat (sau în care au avut ocazia să interacționeze intercultural în cadrul unor activități educaționale) au fost: Spania – 14 persoane, Italia – 11 persoane, Germania – 10 persoane, Franța – 8 persoane, Marea Britanie – 6 persoane, SUA – 3 persoane, Grecia – 2 persoane, Austria, Canada și Ungaria câte 1 persoană. Intervalul de timp în care au interacționat intercultural în cadrul unor activități educaționale în afara sistemului educațional românesc a fost cuprins între 4 ani și aproximativ 2 luni. Prin urmare, 3 dintre elevii și studenții chestionați au învățat în străinătate mai mult de 5 ani, 4 dintre aceștia au fost înscriși în alte țări la școală pentru o durată de aproximativ 3 ani, 5 – între 2 ani și 2 ani și jumătate, 14 pentru aproximativ 1 an, 18 au avut experiențe educaționale în jur de 6 luni, iar un număr de 13 elevi/studenți au avut ocazia să experimenteze activități educaționale pe o durată între 2 și 3 luni.

În privința modalității prin care elevii și studenții au avut acces la experiențe educaționale în alte țări decât România, 11 studenți au precizat că au fost angajați cu contract de muncă pe o perioadă determinată (prin programe studentești), 8 au participat la aceste activități prin programe Erasmus, iar 38 au fost plecați cu familiile lor în străinătate pe perioade mai lungi de timp și au studiat în țările menționate.

În ceea ce privește naționalitatea și etnia colegilor (altele decât cea română) cu care acești elevi și studenți au învățat/învață în sistemul de învățământ românesc am constatat faptul că 21 dintre subiecți au menționat colegi de etnie maghiară, 19 - copii de etnie romă, 5 au menționat colegi de etnie germană, 4 – colegi de etnie ucraineană iar 8 elevi/studenți au menționat și alte naționalități sau etnii ale colegilor de școală, cum ar fi franceză, senegaleză, italiană, spaniolă sau tunisiană.

Designul cercetării

4.1.Scopul și premisele cercetării

Scopul cercetării realizate a fost reprezentat de constatarea gradului în care experiența interculturală a cadrelor didactice dar și a elevilor sau studenților favorizează optimizarea comunicării din spațiul școlii, implicând pozitiv derularea activităților educaționale.

Premisele cercetării au fost următoarele:

- la nivelul sistemului educațional din România se manifestă noi provocări în relaționarea educator-educat, determinate într-o măsură semnificativă de caracteristicile culturale tot mai variate ale indivizilor;
- societatea românească este din ce în ce mai deschisă influențelor multiculturale și interculturale, datorită creșterii mobilității persoanelor, favorizată de posibilitatea de circulație liberă în spațiul european;
- activitățile didactice se axează pe comunicarea educațională, aspect care impune reconsiderarea elementelor de cultură, tradiție, spiritualitate ale celor educați, care provin din ce în ce mai mult din medii multiculturale diverse;
- experiența interculturală a cadrelor didactice sau elevilor/studenților determină ameliorarea dimensiunii comunicative în spațiul educațional;

- experiența interculturală a cadrelor didactice sau elevilor/studentilor determină în egală măsură și ameliorarea dimensiunii comportamentale și conduce la formarea de atitudini intergrupale pozitive în spațiul educațional;

- experiența interculturală anterioară a profesorilor favorizează identificarea și clarificarea unor stereotipuri, prejudecăți etc. prezente în diferite spații culturale, care pot împiedica comunicarea eficientă în mediul social în general și în cel școlar în special.

4.2. Proceduri

Microcercetarea realizată a presupus o primă etapă, care a constat în identificare unor posibili subiecți încadrați în eșantionul experimental și chestionarea acestora. Acest aspect a presupus selectarea cadrelor didactice și a elevilor sau studenților care au avut ocazia să predea sau să învețe în sisteme educaționale din alte țări decât România, conform precizărilor menționate la secțiunea *Participanți*.

A doua etapă a cercetării a fost reprezentată de analiza și interpretarea datelor obținute din chestionare, stabilindu-se punctele comune sau diferite dintre opiniile profesorilor și ale elevilor/studentilor, ca și impactul experienței culturale asupra eficientizării activității educaționale bazate pe comunicare.

Cea de a treia etapă s-a axat pe elaborarea unui set de sugestii raportate la valorificarea experienței interculturale dobândite de către profesori sau elevi și studenți, care ar putea constitui bazele unor programe viitoare de formare continuă. Aceste programe ar trebui să contribuie la optimizarea activității educaționale în general, echilibrând dimensiunea comunicativă cu cea cognitivă și afectivă, în contextul unui mediu educațional caracterizat de alteritate, diversitate și multiculturalism.

Rezultatele obținute ar putea fi luate în considerare în contextul adaptărilor curriculare la toate nivelurile de învățământ, în scopul realizării unor demersuri centrate pe educație interculturală și pe învățare interculturală. Un astfel de rezultat ar facilita o mai bună integrare socială și profesională, favorizând interacțiunile dintre membrii societății, în toate cadrele existenței.

Rezultate

Chestionarul aplicat cadrelor didactice a demonstrat că majoritatea profesorilor a apreciat că experiența interculturală anterioară a contribuit în mare măsură la optimizarea, în general, a activității didactice actuale, dobândind o nouă viziune asupra modului în care se pot realiza activitățile educative prin valorificarea maximală a tradițiilor și valorilor multiculturale. Spre exemplu, în ceea ce privește contribuția experienței interculturale în identificarea și clarificarea unor stereotipuri sau prejudecăți prezente în diferite spații culturale, care pot afecta buna comunicare educațională, 72,05% dintre profesori au apreciat că în mare măsură au dobândit această abilitate, în timp ce 27,94% au răspuns că acest lucru s-a manifestat în măsură potrivită în activitatea lor. Un procent de 89,70% dintre profesori au apreciat că s-a înregistrat un impact semnificativ al experienței interculturale asupra formării unor deprinderi impuse de diversitatea culturală, în timp ce 8,82% au considerat că impactul a fost mai puțin prezent iar 1,47% nu cred că au fost influențate deprinderile acordate la elemente de diversitate culturală, neexistând o astfel de necesitate în mediul în care activează.

O interogare explicită s-a realizat cu privire la rolul experienței interculturale asupra eficientizării comunicării educaționale. Astfel, majoritatea cadrelor didactice (92,64%) au

apreciat că aceasta a condus la o comunicare mai bună cu educații, favorizată fiind întreaga activitate derulată cu aceștia. Un procent de 7,35% dintre respondenți au apreciat că experiența dobândită în alte cadre multiculturale a influențat comunicarea educațională într-o măsură potrivită.

A fost verificată și opinia profesorilor cu privire la impactul pe care învățarea interculturală l-a avut asupra ameliorării dimensiunii cognitive în spațiul educațional. Prin urmare, 73,52% dintre aceștia au menționat faptul că elementele de cunoaștere a specificului cultural al altor etnii i-a ajutat în mare măsură să îmbunătățească în sistemul românesc de învățământ dimensiunea cognitivă a activităților educaționale. Un procent de 17,64% dintre profesori au apreciat impactul ca fiind potrivit asupra ameliorării componentei cognitive, în timp ce 8,82% nu consideră că experiența interculturală a favorizat semnificativ dimensiunea cognitivă a activităților desfășurate de școală.

În privința dimensiunii afective a activității educaționale, 72,09% dintre profesori au apreciat că experiența i-a ajutat să construiască în mare măsură un cadru educațional axat pe empatie și apropiere afectivă între educatori și educați, aspect ce amprentează favorabil comunicarea și relaționarea în mediul școlar. Alți 8,82% dintre profesori au subliniat că impactul interculturalității exersate este relevant într-un grad mediu în conturarea dimensiunii afective în școală și construirea cadrului educațional optim.

În mod interesant, toți respondenții au fost de acord că experiența interculturală dobândită i-a sprijinit în mare măsură în ameliorarea dimensiunii comportamentale și în formarea de atitudini intergrupale pozitive în spațiul educațional, determinând un cadru educațional bazat pe o bună relaționare, în care respectul reciproc și recunoașterea valorilor culturale ale celorlalți constituie condiție esențială pentru acest mediu.

Dorind să verific existența unei corespondențe între efectele experienței interculturale și caracteristicile profesorilor implicați în aceste experiențe, nu am descoperit elemente relevante între nivelul de învățământ la care predau, țările în care au dispus de experiențe interculturale sau etnia celor pe care îi aducă. Totuși pare să se manifeste o legătură între perioada de timp petrecută în sistemul educațional din alte țări și relevanța efectelor pozitive asupra activității didactice actuale, dar și între modalitatea prin care au ajuns să dispună de experiența interculturală. Astfel, majoritatea profesorilor care au lucrat cu contract de muncă în școli din alte țări (89%) par să-și fi dezvoltat în mai mare măsură abilități care favorizează activitatea didactică în special și cea de comunicare în special, comparativ cu cei care au plecat prin programe de formare sau schimburi de experiență. Acest aspect se poate interpreta ca și o dovadă a seriozității implicării în activitatea prestată în alte țări, în corespondență cu solicitările acesteia.

În privința răspunsurilor elevilor și studenților, 71,92% dintre aceștia apreciază că experiența interculturală anterioară i-a ajutat să se integreze mai ușor în colectivul clasei, constituind un semnificativ exercițiu al interrelaționării. Totuși un număr de 16 elevi, reprezentând 28,07% din eșantionul de subiecți, au considerat că experiența lor i-a sprijinit într-o măsură medie în integrarea școlară, deoarece există multe aspecte cu care nu au fost familiarizați în țările în care au fost educați anterior.

Încercând să identificăm modul în care elevii/studenții reușesc să accepte mai ușor diferențele dintre persoanele din jur (privind obiceiurile, comportamentele acestora, diferențele de aspect fizic etc.), ca rezultat al propriei experiențe interculturale, 84,21% dintre

aceștia au fost de acord că acest lucru este demonstrat prin ușurința modului în care se manifestă disponibilitate pentru cunoașterea, înțelegerea și acceptarea diferențelor dintre colegi. În același timp 12,28% dintre elevi au precizat că experiența lor nu îi ajută în mod necesar în cunoașterea celorlalți, care pot fi diferiți de cei cunoscuți anterior, având altă cultură. Un procent de 3,50% dintre respondenți au precizat că deși acest aspect este prezent, impactul asupra acceptării diferențelor dintre persoane este mic, existând încă unele dificultăți.

Analizând răspunsurile celor chestionați cu privire la rolul experienței interculturale asupra favorizării comunicării cu cei din jur, 94,73% dintre elevi au considerat că experiența îi ajută să comunice optim cu cei din jur, atât în mediul educațional cât și în cel social în ansamblul său, iar 5,26% dintre aceștia au menționat totuși existența unor probleme în comunicarea cu cei din jur, acestea datorându-se însă faptului că nu cunosc bine limba (fiind vorba de studenții care au fost înscriși recent în sistemul educațional românesc, având alte naționalități).

Cu privire la influența educației interculturale asupra capacităților elevilor de a-i înțelege pe ceilalți (aspect care ar favoriza dimensiunea afectiv-empatică), 47 dintre cei chestionați au apreciat că experiența de viață din alte țări i-a determinat în mare măsură să-i înțeleagă mai ușor pe ceilalți, care au anumite opinii, valori după care se ghidează, în timp ce 26,31% dintre elevi au apreciat că impactul empatic este mediu, iar 5 dintre studenții chestionați au considerat că interculturalitatea nu este relevantă pentru dezvoltarea competențelor empactice.

Din analiza răspunsurilor vizând efectul experienței interculturale asupra conduitei și relaționării cu cei din jur, 85,96% dintre respondenți cred că au dezvoltat abilități de colaborare într-o măsură semnificativă, aspect care favorizează întreaga activitate educațională, pornind de la comunicare și până la conduită. Totuși 14,03% dintre studenții chestionați apreciază că indiferent de experiența interculturală de care dispun, se manifestă dificultăți în relaționarea cu cei din jur, motivele fiind însă raportate la absența abilităților de comunicare sau la dificultatea de a stabili contacte sociale cu cei din jur, indiferent cărei culturi îi aparțin. La fel ca în cazul profesorilor, cu cât durata în care au dispus de experiență interculturală a fost mai mare, cu atât par să fie mai relevante și efectele pozitive asupra dimensiunilor explorate prin itemii chestionarului.

Pentru o ilustrare mai exactă a aspectelor prezentate mai sus voi prezenta în tabelele 1 și 2 datele obținute în urma analizei chestionarelor:

Aspecte influențate de experiența interculturală	Nr. total -68			%		
	Mare măsură	Potrivit	Mică măsură	Mare măsură	Potrivit	Mică măsură
Identificarea și clarificarea unor stereotipuri, prejudecăți etc. prezente în diferite spații culturale	49	19	-	72,05	27,94	-
Formarea unor deprinderi impuse de diversitatea culturală	61	6	1	89,70	8,82	1,47

Ameliorarea dimensiunii comunicative în spațiul educațional	63	5	-	92,64	7,35	-
Ameliorarea dimensiunii cognitive în spațiul educațional	50	12	6	73,52	17,64	8,82
Ameliorarea dimensiunii afective în spațiul educațional	62	6	-	72,09	8,82	-
Ameliorarea dimensiunii comportamentale și formarea de atitudini intergrupale pozitive în spațiul educațional	68	-	-	100	-	-

Tabel 1. Opinia profesorilor referitoare la impactul experienței interculturale asupra optimizării activității educaționale

Aspecte influențate de experiența interculturală	Nr.total-57			%		
	Mare măsură	Potrivit	Mică măsură	Mare măsură	Potrivit	Mică măsură
Integrare optimă în colectivul clasei	41	16	-	71,92	28,07	-
Ameliorarea dimensiunii comunicative în spațiul educațional	54	3	-	94,73	5,26	-
Ameliorarea dimensiunii cognitive în spațiul educațional	48	7	2	84,21	12,28	3,50
Ameliorarea dimensiunii afective în spațiul educațional	47	15	5	82,45	26,31	8,77
Ameliorarea dimensiunii comportamentale și formarea de atitudini intergrupale pozitive în spațiul educațional	49	8	-	85,96	14,03	-

Tabel 2. Opinia elevilor/studentilor referitoare la impactul experienței interculturale asupra optimizării activității educaționale

O analiză comparativă a aspectelor comune reflectate în cele două chestionare se poate observa și în fig.1., în care sunt ilustrate opiniile profesorilor și elevilor cu privire la impactul pe care experiența interculturală îl are asupra diferitelor aspecte ale activității educaționale, remarcându-se o oarecare unitate de păreri, ceea ce confirmă faptul că pentru ambele categorii aceste experiențe au avut relevanță.

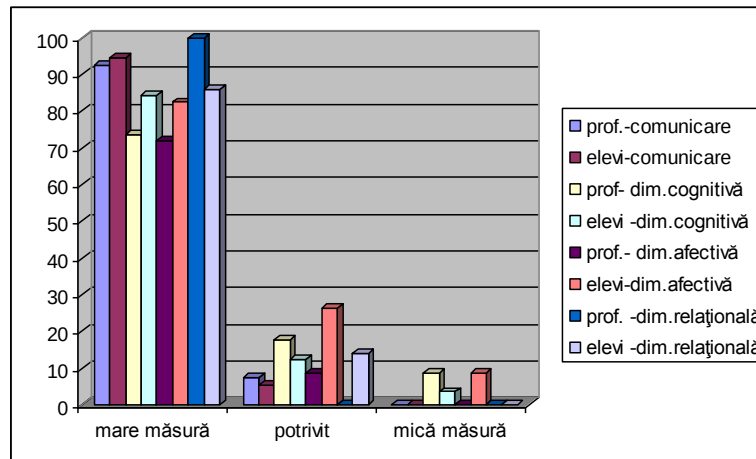


Fig. 1. Ilustrarea comparativă a răspunsurilor profesorilor și elevilor cu privire la impactul experienței interculturale asupra diferitelor aspecte ale mediului educațional

De remarcat este faptul că atât profesorii cât și elevii au apreciat în majoritatea lor că experiența interculturală poate favoriza toate componentele actului educațional și în mod prioritar comunicarea. Acest fapt susține ipoteza că trebuie intervenit cât mai de timpuriu în educația copiilor din perspectiva formării interculturale, atâta timp cât școala viitorului va dobândi un caracter multicultural din ce în ce mai pronunțat, iar dezideratul primar al acestuia va fi în continuare o educație eficientă în toate planurile formării.

Concluzii

Prin valorificarea rezultatelor obținute în urma analizei datelor chestionarelor ne-am propus elaborarea unor sugestii care să contribuie la optimizarea activităților educaționale, la baza cărora stă o comunicare eficientă.

- Deoarece, conform datelor obținute, educația interculturală poate influența în mare măsură comunicarea, recomandăm ca aceasta să-și dezvolte o aplicabilitate la nivelul tuturor ariilor educației, atât în cadrul educației formale, cât și în cea nonformală sau informală (Gobel, K., & All, 2007).

- Aceasta ar viza formarea unui set de achiziții care să includă cunoștințe culturale, atitudini, comportamente și competențe care să favorizeze activitatea educațională în ansamblul său.

- Dezvoltarea abilităților comunicaționale pe fondul învățării interculturale reprezintă nucleul unei bune integrări sociale, în cadrul oricărei societăți, chiar dacă aceasta are un caracter multicultural accentuat.

- Asigurarea unei mobilități mai ridicate în educație și formare profesională prin creșterea ofertei de programe destinate cadrelor didactice sau elevilor/studentilor, axată pe schimburi de experiență realizate în sisteme de învățământ ale altor state.

Dezideratele educației interculturale sunt tangibile, sunt realiste, iar practica educațională demonstrează acest lucru. Ceea ce trebuie să facem este să accentuăm caracterul intercultural al activităților instructiv-educative și, în limita posibilităților să extindem formarea interculturală și la nivelul educației adulților.

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THE ROMANIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, BAROMETER OF THE SOCIAL MENTAL PATTERNS

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Abstract: Since the turning point of the December revolution in 1989 up to the present, Romania has undergone radical structural changes at all levels of society: form of government, economy, administration, as well as mentality and social behaviour. As the general democratic transformation of our country has entailed the reformation of the Romanian educational institutions as well, we believe that they reflect habits and mental patterns which, even though perceived as democratic values in the collective mentality of the people, they are not entirely different from the ones specific to the former communist society. The purpose of our study is to highlight the beliefs and attitudes characteristic of the present Romanian system of education which we consider to be a barometer of the society as a whole. In this way we may understand the extent to which democratic values have been internalized by our society.

Keywords: society, patterns, education, mentality, culture

Introduction

Romania's evolution from 1989 to the present has meant a radical and deep transformation process of the political, economic and administrative bodies, the levers of power, the mentalities and the dynamics of the whole society. After 25 years of attempts to build, on the ruins of communist society, a capitalist democracy, adapting the Western myth to the Romanian society's often refractory particular conditions, it is natural to ask ourselves what kind of society has been and is still being built in Romania, a country that prides itself on its European affiliation. Being assigned the mission to reform and reshape consciences, the Romanian educational system has undergone various structural reforms overtime. Viewed from this perspective, we consider it to be a good barometer of the social and cultural values, mentalities and behaviours specific to present Romanian society.

Our study aims to show the extent to which Romania integrates or keeps away from the values of the Western countries whose model it has tried to follow and implement at educational, social, administrative and political levels.

In order to achieve the purpose of our study we consider that Geert Hofstede's theory and method described in his well-known book *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind* could offer us a useful framework for our analysis. As he points out, "Every person carries within him or herself patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential acting which were learned throughout their life." Basing his theory on an analogy with the computing programming, such patterns, which are called "software of the mind", determine human behaviour. That is why, as is further emphasized, to learn something different requires to unlearn what has already been established in our mind, a fact that makes the process of unlearning rather difficult. (Hofstede, 1997: 4)

Seen from this point of view, culture should not be confused with human nature or the personality of an individual, but it should be viewed as a collective phenomenon acquired through a process of learning in a given social environment. Being mental programming

under certain circumstances, culture determines differences among individuals and groups of individuals.

Geert Hofstede's model proposes five operational concepts or dimensions by means of which cultural values can be measured and analyzed. These are defined and explained as follows.

Power distance reflects the degree to which people in a culture accept human inequality and preserve status and power differences among the members of society. In Hofstede's terms, this cultural dimension expresses "the extent to which the less powerful members" of a group or country "accept that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1997: 262). As a result, in low power distance cultures the organizational structure is generally flat, whereas high power distant cultures rest on a hierarchical structure which maintains a clear cut distinction between power holders and simple members of society, managers and subordinates.

The two contrasting notions, individualism and collectivism, are related to the differences between individualistic societies that value the self and individual rights, and collectivist societies which foster group-oriented values and behaviour, individuals acting as strong and cohesive groups.

Uncertainty avoidance stands for people's capacity to cope with unknown, unusual situations, or with the uncertainty of the future. In general, high uncertainty avoidance cultures try to adopt gradual changes, while low uncertainty avoidance cultures show a greater degree of tolerance for changeable situations.

The opposition between masculinity and femininity points out the distinction between the societies that attach more importance to masculine qualities such as power, competitiveness, pragmatism, ambition etc, and those founded on feminine values like modesty, tenderness, caring for others and concern with the quality of life.

Long-term orientation refers to pragmatic societies that "foster the virtues oriented towards the future rewards, in particular perseverance and thrift" (Hofstede, 1997: 261). Conversely, short-term oriented societies praise traditional values and the past, and place emphasis on the present rather than the future.

Methodology of Research

The cultural dimensions enumerated above form the basis of the survey that we used in order to study the mental programmes of a social category which, in our opinion, may be representative of the entire Romanian society.

The research questions we had in mind when administering the dimensions described above were the following: What are the mentalities and social behaviours of a society that faced the communist deconstruction and experienced the post-communist reconstruction? Or, narrowing our research to the educational system, what is the extent to which it reflects new social and cultural values, corresponding to the general mutations faced by society? To what extent do these elements represent parts of the European behavioural patterns?

We questioned 50 high school and university teachers from Ploiești starting from the model of cultural dimensions suggested by Geert Hofstede in *Cultures and Organizations. Software of the Mind*.

Using only four dimensions of Hofstede's pattern, we asked our respondents to tick the descriptions that best fitted their opinions and beliefs. After collecting the data, we counted their responses, and after summing them up we calculated the percentages that corresponded to each type of pattern suggested by the participants in the study. The results are shown in the table below.

Table 1. Dimensions of Romanian society

Large power distance vs. small power distance	77.57% vs. 22.43 %
Individualism vs. collectivism	33.67 % vs. 66.33 %
Weak uncertainty avoidance vs. strong uncertainty avoidance	20.43 % vs. 79.57 %
Feminity vs. masculinity	46.40 % vs. 53.60 %

We consider that our findings may illustrate Romanian teachers' "patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting mental programmes" (Hofstede, 1997: 4), indicating the degree to which their behaviour is predetermined by their collective past.

Our intention is not to comparatively analyse Romania and other states, as in Hofstede's approach, because such an enterprise would involve taking into consideration certain social, economic and political factors specific to the respective countries on which we do not have the necessary information. Therefore, our study will simply analyse the data offered by our respondents, trying to move from the specific to the general in order to draw some conclusions.

Data analysis

3.1. A large power distance society

As is shown in figure 1, a significant percentage of participants (77.57 %) have a high distance power value. From a list of 14 cultural traits used by Hofstede to measure the extent to which people accept power distribution in society, the majority chose 10 items representative for a large power distance society.

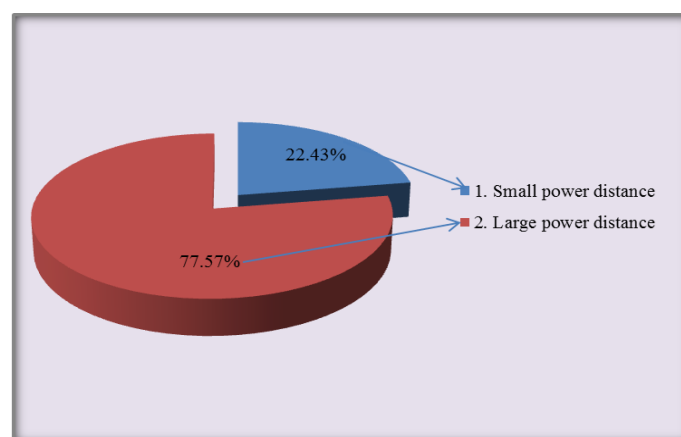


Figure 1. Large power distance vs. small power distance

With respect to the general social norm, the participants' options indicate that they accept social inequalities considering them to be normal. Equally important, they accept the polarization of society and believe that less powerful people should be dependent on the more powerful members of society.

As far as family and school are concerned, they appreciate moral values such as obedience to and respect for parents and teachers, and believe in the authoritative role of the teacher who is viewed as an initiator and controller of the instructional process, or as a source of knowledge.

In connection with the workplace, the respondents picked out the characteristics referring to the practice of centralized decision making, a hierarchical system of organisation based on salary inequality, and a wide salary range between top and bottom employees. It should also be noted that, according to their answer, the ideal manager's features consist in paternalistic leadership and benevolent autocracy.

As seen above, there is a common behaviour pattern that reflects the respondents' tendency to avoid taking part in the exercise of power. Attempting an explanation of their beliefs, we can state that, in spite of the profound social and political changes undergone by society, this way of thinking and acting echoes the avoidance behaviour that was typical of people's psychology in the former totalitarian regime, when obedience to authority meant protecting oneself against any aggression exerted by the state apparatus and its representatives.

On the other hand, interpreted within the present socio-economic context, the respondents' inclination to submit to authority, which results in their preference for centralized decision making and their acceptance of the superiors' orders uncritically or without showing opposition to what they dislike, may be justified by the fear of losing their jobs. Nevertheless, it is important to mention that ultimately this kind of fear generates attitudes specific to the complex of power that make people consent to differential treatment, wide salary discrepancies between management and employees, or other forms of inequalities among people.

3.2. A collectivist society

As to the opposition between the collectivist and individualist features of societies, the percentages that we found, namely 33.67 % for individualism and 66.33 % for collectivism, speak for themselves. From a list of 12 cultural items referring to these differences, most respondents selected 8 collectivist characteristics.

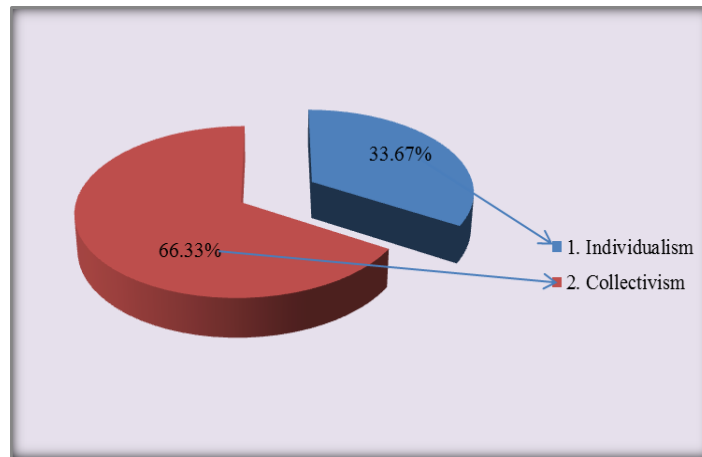


Figure 2. Individualism vs. collectivism

In point of norm and family, most responses show that identity is seen as belongingness to a social group, and not as individuality of a person. Participants believe that children should be taught collectivist principles such as “to think in terms of we” and not “in terms of I” (Hofstede, 1997: 76), or to avoid dissenting opinions that might result in confrontation among the members of the group. That is why harmonious relationships and high communication within the group are strongly appreciated.

In relation to school, the respondents’ answers reveal that students should primarily know “how to do” and not “how to learn” (Hofstede, 1997: 76). Moreover, diplomas are believed to be a means of reaching a higher social status and are not necessarily perceived as a way of getting self-esteem or financial independence.

As far as the workplace is concerned, most participants chose two features that reflect the importance attached to the group as part of an organisation: for instance, running an institution lies in managing groups instead of individuals, and group relationships should prevail over tasks and not vice-versa.

It is worth mentioning that the respondents’ attitude is similar to the collectivist behaviour which was dominant in the former communist society. Collectivism and cooperative forms of organization constituted the ideological basis of the totalitarian Romanian state which rejected bourgeois individualism and its related values considering them not only outdated but also threatening for the socialist development of the country. That is why, for the Communist leaders “it was imperative to clear the field in order to lay the foundations of the new socialist culture by throwing away the remains and wastes of the bourgeois culture, in fact, the arguments for national identity” (Tismăneanu et al., 2006: 489).

Throughout the years, this collectivist behaviour pattern has been reproduced and transmitted from generation to generation in various environments such as family, school, workplace and in institutions. At present, it can be felt in people’s tendency to value harmonious relationships at work, to avoid confrontations among the members of the group they belong to, or to perceive the institution in which they work as a large family that requires commitment and submission. In addition, there is a general cultural tendency to value the interests of the group and not the ones of the individual.

3.3. A strong uncertainty avoidance society

It is noteworthy that the participants' answers reveal a high degree of social anxiety (79.57 %). From a list of 14 items characterizing the opposition between weak and strong uncertainty avoidance societies, they chose 11 features that bring to the fore specific behaviour under stressful conditions.

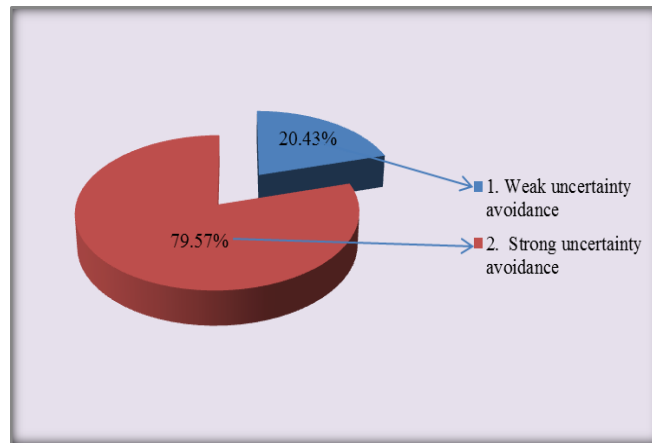


Figure 3. Weak uncertainty avoidance vs. strong uncertainty avoidance

With respect to the general social norm, most answers point out the perception of uncertainty as a continuous threat or a subjective feeling of anxiety that should be avoided during one's lifetime. Regarding the attitude to risk, only familiar risk is accepted, while uncertain or ambiguous situations are believed to produce fear.

As to the items referring to family and school, the respondents consider that children should be taught rules of conduct against "what is dirty and taboo" (Hofstede, 1997: 167). Furthermore, school is supposed to offer students security and comfort in structured learning classes where teachers are models of knowledge. In such a context, precision and punctuality are seen as natural attitudes and not as something that is acquired through learning.

Now as regards work stress, most options emphasize the emotional urge to work hard under the guidance of the principle that "time is money". It is also relevant that deviant ideas or behaviour from the norm are rejected due to their stressful potential, whereas the feeling of security at work is perceived as beneficial for motivation. As in the case of school, companies and organizations should be rule-oriented in order to reduce uncertainty.

The need to avoid anxiety, which was highlighted by the majority of the participants, falls into a conservative mental pattern that explains people's general resistance to change and to what is different from entrenched habits (for instance, new organizational regulations, requalification, and change of job). It is a fact that people are inclined to prefer low-paid secure jobs in the public sector rather than highly-paid insecure jobs in the private sector.

The perception of change as a possible threat justifies why many of the reforms implemented so far in education, economy, technology, and administration have been accepted with reserve by the Romanians. As concerns the educational system, this attitude is reflected in teachers' resistance to the application of new teaching methods as well as in the slow modernization of the educational process.

3.4. A mixed society

As seen in the figure below, we cannot clearly state whether the participants perceive society as being masculine or feminine, due to the fact that the percentages are quite close. From a list of 15 cultural traits discussed by Hofstede, our respondents selected 8 items representing masculine features and 7 items for the feminine ones.

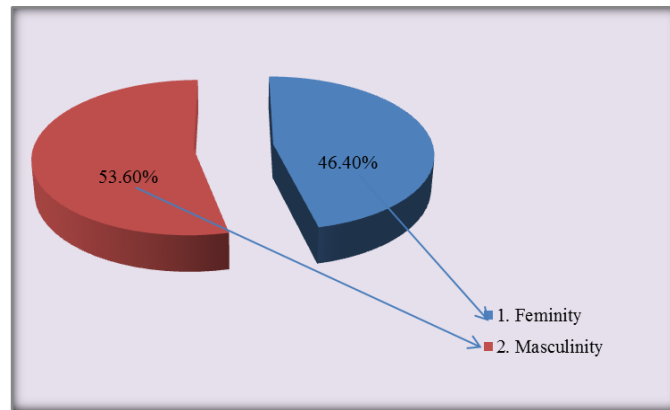


Figure 4. Femininity vs. masculinity

The respondents' answers referring to the general social norm of a masculine society point out that material success and progress are dominant values of the Romanian culture, money and things being seen as important for the social status.

As far as family is concerned, most participants have distinct expectations of male and female roles, or believe in gender differences. For instance, tenderness characterizes women, while toughness and ambition are men's qualities. Equally, within the family, it is the father who is responsible for dealing with facts, while the mother is supposed to be more emotionally involved in the family life. As to boys and girls, they are seen as opposite entities when it comes to conflicts: "girls cry, boys don't; boys should fight back when attacked, girls shouldn't fight" (Hofstede, 1997: 117).

Regarding education, most responses show that teachers' masculine qualities are highly appreciated. For instance, it is brilliance that matters in the educational process and not feminine qualities such as friendliness.

In addition, the answers describing managers as being decisive and assertive indicate that the values associated with male features and behaviour are common perceptions.

The cultural traits referred to as feminine reflect opinions that are opposite to the ones described above. Thus, from the point of view of the general social norm, the respondents acknowledge that caring for others and warm relationships among people are important attributes of our society.

The same sympathetic attitude towards the weak is emphasized by the respondents' answers related to the educational system. In their opinion, the average student represents the norm, and failing in school is viewed as a minor accident.

The responses referring to the work place reveal the general tendency of a feminine culture that lays stress "on equality, solidarity, and quality of work life", as well as on the idea that members of society "work in order to live" (1997: 117).

In the light of these considerations, we are of the opinion that the coexistence of the two cultural dimensions in Romanian society may result from the fact that our country has not reached a stable level of modernization to enable the formation of durable patterns of thinking and coherent social attitudes. Nevertheless, the slightly higher percentage of masculine values is likely to indicate a rising trend in the future.

Conclusions

As a barometer of the mental patterns of Romanian society, the educational system reflects cultural values and social attitudes that continue a traditional way of thinking with roots in the country's communist history. On the other hand, new mentalities have developed in the context of Romania's multilevel reconstruction after the collapse of the communist regime, becoming patterns of thinking, feeling, and acting in a new type of society formed "via the democratic process within the democratic procedures, and as a democratic course moves forward." (Sartori, 1987: 8).

The data analysis led us to the conclusion that values and ideologies belonging to Romania's communist past, such as large power distance and collectivism, persist in the present-day mentality and social behaviour. It is true that "cultural values can change over time" especially "when political, societal, and economic environments change" (2006: 41), but it seems that deeply ingrained collective mentalities, which are characterized by continuation and strong resistance to adaptation, function as old cultural codes perpetuated in a new socio-cultural milieu.

The large power distance dimension of our culture stems from a paternal vision of power that may be a nostalgic reminiscence of the only leader and one-party system characteristic of communist society. Today, remnants of this mental pattern can be identified in people's tendency to appreciate authoritarian leaders at different levels (government, political parties or institutions) and believe that such leaders are able to create order and stability in society. It is also relevant that, although unequal distribution of power, status differences and subordination to authority are generally seen as legitimate, people are also attracted to the idea of another leadership style that should be more cooperative and focused on the participation of the individual. This paradox, which reflects the contradiction between how they actually behave and what they wish, seem to derive from the same dual psychological mechanism specific to the way of living under the communist regime.

Strongly developed in communism as a state ideology, collectivist mentality annihilated the values of individualism and private property as the totalitarian aim was "organising masses, not classes (...); not citizens with opinions about and interests in." (Arendt, 1962: 308). The ideology of common good, equality and reciprocity resulted in long-term effects as the Romanians had to relearn what individual freedom, self-reliance, ownership and decentralization meant. As long as state intervention is still viewed as a principal means of supporting and improving people's social condition, we may state that these effects are still felt today.

The strong uncertainty avoidance dimension in our culture is in sharp contrast to the weak uncertainty avoidance value specific to the former communist society where, although people lacked freedom and feared political persecution, long-term stable employment and the relative uniformity of the members of society were perceived as security factors. At the

present time, people's feeling of uncertainty is justified by the rapid change and instability that characterize postcommunist Romania in its way to modernization. Generally, stress originates in a variety of factors that can be economic and financial (job loss, unemployment, financial precariousness and instability that could entail the inability to pay bills, loan installments and high quality medical treatment, etc.) or professional (requalification, too many tasks at work, adjustment to new technologies and requirements etc.). People's low tolerance of risk and ambiguous situations has been converted into defense mechanisms such as the need for consensus and written rules within groups and organisations, or, conversely, into negative emotions concerning any kind of control, workplace rules and policies (for instance, haste to complete work tasks, misconduct, avoidance of long-term goals, etc.).

The ambiguity of Romanian society in point of its feminine and masculine dimensions is due to a combination of factors. Thus, on the one hand, the belief that men and women have distinct roles in society is imposed by a powerful tradition and, on the other hand, values such as gender equality, quality of life and sympathy for others are new patterns of thinking internalized by collective mentality in the context of Romania's European integration.

As E. Durkheim shows, a collective feeling 'is a result of common life, a product of the actions and reactions that occur among individual consciences, and if this feeling resounds in each of them, this is possible due to its special power that comes from its collective origin.' (2004, p.49) Therefore, we may say that, although the formation of mental and behaviour patterns requires a long cumbersome process, the restructuring and transformation of Romanian society have laid the basis for their crystallization.

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COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE PROFESSIONAL CAREERS OF CLUJ-NAPOCA SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS' AND EGER PSYCHOPEDAGOGY STUDENTS

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Abstract: The authors endeavor to highlight certain aspects connected to satisfaction with the career social work students from Babeş-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca and social pedagogy students from the Eszterházy Károly College in Eger prepare for. The goal of the study is to harness the experience the students have gained over the course of their internships during their three years of college, which lays the foundations of their professional careers. The main goal is to present a comparison of the assessments made by the students from the two universities regarding the perception of the profession they have chosen.

The study presents a comparison of the data regarding the extent that Cluj and Eger students were satisfied with the training they have received at graduate level, as well as their perceptions about their career prospects. We wish to highlight the measure in which the theoretical and practical training provided by the curricula correspond to what is demanded for practicing in this social field.

Theoretical and practical skills shall be assessed by graduate students based on their experience during their internships – field work – over the course of their years of study. We shall also refer to the satisfaction the future professionals in this social field have with choosing these helper professions, as well as the sense of fulfillment in their lives.

The second goal is to create – based on information received from students – a skill-based training model that would take into account the demands of field work. We shall be focusing on the analysis of the skills necessary for planning and carrying out social interventions and the capacity for professional communication; thus, it shall only target the theoretical model of relationship counseling, an integral part of social work.

The study is constructed around three major topics:

- 1. Aspects regarding the perception of a career as a helper in the two disparate social and geographical environments*
- 2. Comparative analysis of the congruity between the students' training and the stringent demands of field work*
- 3. A skill-based training model in the case of relationship counseling.*

Keywords: self-assessment of training and satisfaction with regard to career – relationship counseling – skill-based training

1. Introducere

Obiectivul major al studiului este evaluarea măsurii în care pregătirea teoretică și practică oferită prin programele de studiu – de nivel de licență – corespunde solicitărilor din domeniul social. Ne bazăm pe date obținute de la studenții din anii terminali, care pe baza experienței lor din cadrul practicii profesionale desfășurată în timpul celor trei ani de facultate, au făcut o evaluare legată de perceperea carierei de helper, precum și o autoevaluare a corespondenței dintre pregătirea lor și nevoile stringente ale muncii pe teren. Pornind de la analiza acestor date dorim să revizuiți programele de studii, și să elaborăm un model conceptual al formării pe bază de competențe, focusat pe intervenții. Aceste obiective sunt urmărite în cazul a două universități din medii social-geografice diferite: la studenții de Asistență socială din UBB Cluj și la studenții de Pedagogie socială din cadrul Eszterhazy Karoly College din Eger, Ungaria.

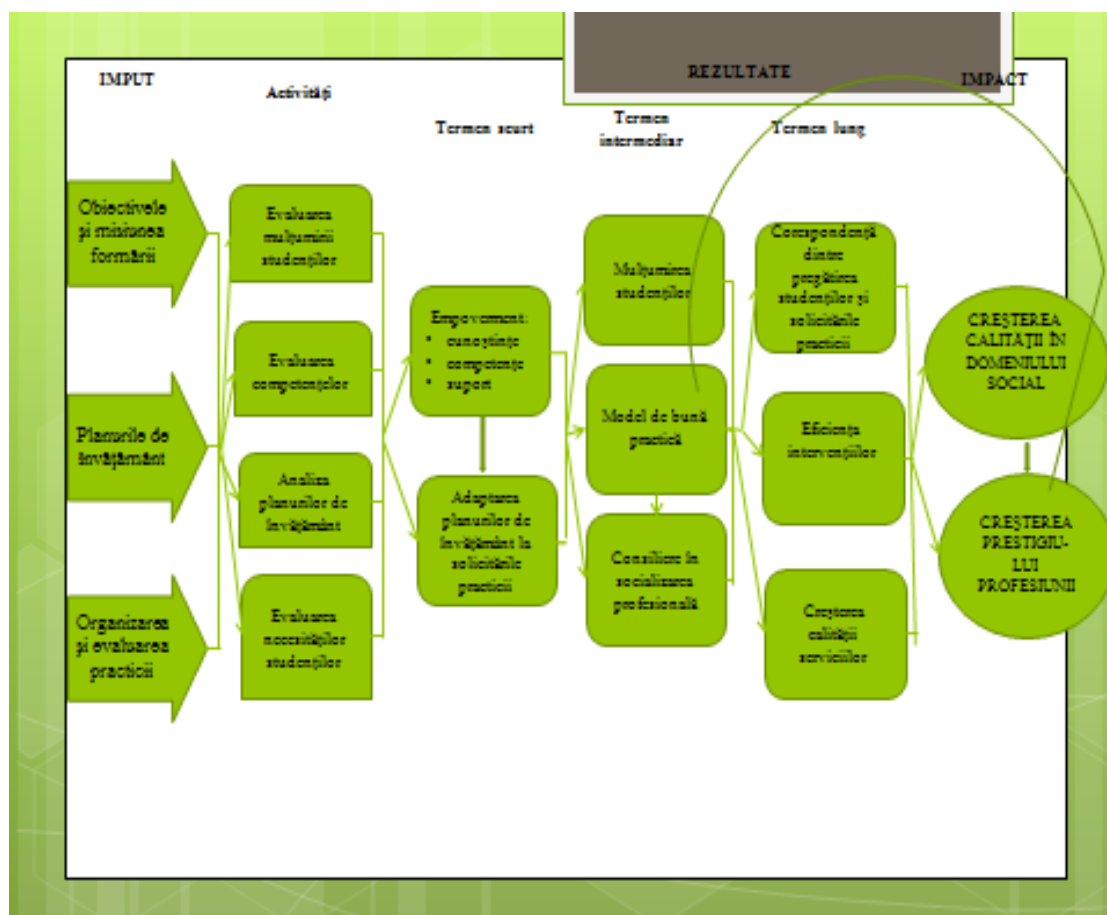
Modelul conceptual al cercetării:

Fig. 1. Designul cercetării

Pornind de la percepția studenților asupra profesiei lor de viitor, prin adaptarea formării lor la cerințele practicii, dorim să contribuim la creșterea calității în domeniul social și la ridicarea prestigiului acestei profesii de helper.

Metodologie:

Colectarea datelor s-a făcut prin chestionare și focusgrupuri. Au fost cooptați în studiu toți studenții absolvenți (promoția 2013): Cluj 28 persoane (32,9%); Eger 56 de persoane (65,9% căruia îi este asociat cu 1,2%, o persoană din Germania care studiază în Eger.) Superioritatea numerică din Eger poate indica faptul că în Ungaria prestigiul social al asistentului social este mai mare decât la noi. În ultimii cinci ani avem mai puțini studenți decât cu ani în urmă. Aceasta este unul din motivele pentru care dorim să urmărim traiectoria socializării profesionale a studenților noștri.

Datele demografice arată că din 85 de absolvenți 83,5% sunt femei și 15,3% bărbați, dintre care 25% bărbați și 75% femei la Cluj, iar 89,48% femei și 10,52% de sex masculin la Eger. Raportul dintre sexe – în ambele centre universitare – arată preponderența femeilor.

În ceea ce privește starea civilă a respondenților am aflat că 5,88% sunt căsătoriți, 3,53% este rata concubinajului, 43,53% au un partener stabil dar stau separat, 45,88 % sunt solitari, iar 1,16% dintre respondenți nu au răspuns la această întrebare. Toți cei care sunt căsătoriți învață la Cluj, procentul celor care se consideră solitari este mai mare tot la Cluj.

Dintre studenții chestionați 75,30% au doar statutul de student, 4,71% dețin contract de muncă pe durată nedeterminată într-un alt sector decât social; 2,35% au pe lângă statutul de student și cel de angajat pe durată determinată, dar nu în domeniul pentru care se pregătesc; 1,18% au funcție de conducere în domeniul social; tot 1,18% desfășoară activități independente; 3,53% muncesc ocazional; iar 9,41% dintre respondenți nu au răspuns la această întrebare. Prin compararea datelor reiese că în rândul studenților din Cluj munca pe lângă facultate este mai frecventă, fapt care este motivat de studenți prin faptul că altfel nu se pot întreține.

2. Aspecte legate de perceperea carierei de helper în cele două medii social-geografice diferite

Am dorit să aflăm dacă studenții din cele două centre universitare sunt *mulțumiți de formarea* care au primit-o în decursul anilor de facultate. Dintre respondenți 11,76% se declară complet mulțumiți, 27,6% sunt foarte mulțumiți, 50,59% sunt mulțumiți la un nivel mediu, 4,71% sunt puțin mulțumiți, iar 2,35% este rata celor nemulțumiți. Studenții din Eger, în general sunt mai satisfăcuți din acest punct de vedere, de exemplu 31,6% dintre studenții din Eger se consideră foarte mulțumiți, în timp ce numai 17,9 % dintre studenții clujeni sunt de această părere. Diferențele dintre datele din Cluj și Eger arată doar tendințe și nu sunt semnificative din punct de vedere statistic.

La fel am cerut studenților să evalueze *cât de pregătiți se simt după absolvirea nivelului de licență*. Astfel 28,21% nu au răspuns la această întrebare, 1,28% se simt nepregătiți pentru a începe munca, 2,56% se descurcă greu, 37,18% cred că sunt pregătiți la un nivel mediu, 25,64% consideră că abilitățile și competențele formate în timpul facultății sunt corespunzătoare, iar 13,5% spun că sunt foarte bine pregătiți. Comparând răspunsurile celor din Cluj cu cei din Eger nu găsim diferențe semnificative, dar totuși cei din Eger sunt mai siguri pe ei și tot printre ei sunt mai mulți care se cred bine pregătiți. Predomină numărul mare de non-răspunsuri, care poate ascunde lipsa capacității de autoreflexie.

Starea de spirit cu care absolvenții ies din facultate poate influența cariera lor profesională. Pentru a cunoaște starea lor de spirit i-am întrebat despre starea lor afectivă din ultima lună, adică în ce măsură le era caracteristic: bucuria, buna dispoziție. Analizând răspunsurile studenților reiese că: 1,18% nu au dat răspuns, 18,1%, aproape niciodată nu au trăit aceste sentimente pozitive, 8,24% au avut rareori acest sentiment și stare pozitivă, 28,24%, au trăit frecvent o stare emoțională plăcută, la 44,71%, starea a fost aleatoare, iar 16,47% au fost veseli aproape tot timpul. Comparând datele obținute de la studenții clujeni și a celor din Eger reiese că cei din Cluj trăiesc emoții pozitive mai des, dar aceste diferențe nu sunt semnificative din punct de vedere statistic. Starea de spirit pozitiv ar trebui să fie o resursă a helperilor, deoarece ei trebuie să administreze nu numai propriile probleme ci și cele ale clienților săi. Grijă pentru igiena mentală a studenților trebuie să fie în atenția noastră.

La fel de important este ca helperii să fie caracterizați prin mulțumire cu viața. În ceea ce privește *satisfacția legată de viață* am aflat că 1,81% nu sunt deloc mulțumiți de viață, 7,06% sunt mai puțin mulțumiți, 48,24% sunt destul de mulțumiți de viață, 32,94% sunt mulțumiți și 9,41% sunt foarte mulțumiți cu viața, iar 1,81% nu au dat niciun răspuns. Satisfacția cu viața a fost mai bună în cazul celor de la Cluj, 21,4% dintre respondenți sunt foarte mulțumiți cu viața, iar acest procent este de numai 3,5% în Eger. Această diferență este semnificativă, $p=0,050$).

Legat de *sentimentul de perspectivă* un procent 16,47% consideră că sunt foarte optimiști față de viitor, 41,18% speră că viitorul va aduce multe lucruri pozitive, 21,18% se așteaptă atât la bine cât și la rău, la 12,14% apare anxietate privind viitorul, iar în cazul a 7,06% dintre respondenți le e teamă de viitor.

În cazul celor două centre universitare la Cluj este mai mare procentul acelor care sunt mai optimiști privind propriul viitor. Dintre studenții clujeni 32,1% sunt optimiști, speră la bine, în timp ce la Eger, doar 8,8% își exprimă optimismul. De asemenea, procentul acelor care sunt preocupați sau își fac griji, având o stare de anxietate față de viitor sunt mai mulți printre studenții din Eger. (Diferența este semnificativă, $p=0,020$).

Rezultatele le găsim interesante, deoarece studenții din Eger sunt mai mulțumiți cu pregătirea pe care o primesc la facultate, se simt mai bine pregătiți și totuși starea lor de spirit și mulțumirea lor cu viața este mai negativă, și sunt mai anxioși privind propriul viitor.

În ambele centre universitare i-am întrebat pe studenți, ca pe baza experienței lor de până acum (practica profesională din timpul anilor de studiu) ce li se pare *dificil în profesia aleasă* de ei. Printre greutăți au fost enumerate: suprasolicitarea, prestigiul scăzut al profesiei, tensiunile de la locurile de muncă, greutăți legate de a găsi un loc de muncă etc. În percepția studenților, în ceea ce privește *munca cu clienții* principalele greutăți sunt următoarele: evidențierea faptelor relevante din relatările clienților; înțelegerea comportamentului verbal și nonverbal; recunoașterea resurselor clientului; înțelegerea nivelului latent – semnificației psihologice – din relatările clienților; câștigarea încrederii; ascultare focusată și empatică; managementul de caz și motivarea clienților; definirea obiectivelor, planificare; etc. (Între cele două eșantioane nu sunt diferențe statistic semnificative.)

După opinia studenților principalele neajunsuri, *lacune în cunoștințele acumulate* în timpul facultății sunt: cunoștințe financiare, comunicare empatică, abilități mai bune de comunicare, experiență în munca cu clienții, abilități de organizare, pregătire teoretică mai vastă, scriere de proiecte, dezvoltare personală, dăruire, angajament, abilități de consiliere, motivație pentru intervenții mai dificile, limbi străine, cunoștințe din domeniul dreptului, cunoștințe din domeniul sănătății mintale, ierarhizarea sarcinilor, metodologia cercetării, abilități de conducere, răbdare cu clienții. (Lista este alcătuită în ordinea frecvenței cu care au fost evocate lipsurile.) Studenții din Cluj au relevat mai frecvent: scrierea de proiecte, cunoștințe juridice și financiare, competențe de consiliere, cunoașterea aprofundată a limbii române. Studenții din Eger simt mai mult lipsa de: abilități organizatorice, cunoștințe din domeniul sănătății mentale, cunoștințe din domeniul financiar.

Pe parcursul celor trei ani de facultate, studenții și-au putut face o impresie asupra profesiei aleasă. Am dorit să obținem răspunsul – pe baza experienței acumulate în timpul practicii profesionale – *în ce măsură sunt mulțumiți cu profesia aleasă*. Distribuția

răspunsurilor este următoarea: 4,71% nu au răspuns, 1,18% consideră că această alegere este un eșec, pentru 5,88% dintre respondenți este suportabil, 42,35% sunt mulțumiți la un nivel mediu, 34,12% sunt mulțumiți, iar 11,76% se simt foarte mulțumiți cu această alegere. Răspunsurile celor din Eger sunt mai diferențiate, evaluările celor din Cluj se concentrează în jurul valorilor medii.

Pe baza datelor de mai sus putem concluziona că datele obținute în cele două centre universitare nu diferă mult, decât în ceea ce privește satisfacția cu viața și sentimentul de perspectivă. Această diferență este în favoarea clujenilor, fapt care credem că, pe de o parte este și rezultatul faptului că avem preocupări susținute pentru dezvoltarea personală a studenților noștri.

3. Model conceptual al formării pe bază de competențe în cazul muncii de relație

Analizând răspunsurile studenților am putut vedea cât se simt de pregătiți după trei ani de facultate și care sunt cele mai mari lipsuri legate de competențele asimilate. Pornind de aici am conceput un model de formare care ne poate ghida în pregătirea studenților pentru a face față eficient la solicitările muncii de pe teren.

Colectivitatea catedrei noastre cu ani în urmă a elaborat un model teoretic pentru a răspunde la necesitatea trecerii la formarea pe bază de competențe. Ca și definiție a competențelor profesionale am preluat definiția conform căreia „competențele sunt exprimate prin cunoștințele și abilitățile care acoperă comprehensiv dimensiunea profesională pentru orice calificare” (Metodologia de realizare a cadrului național al calificărilor din învățământul superior (<http://www.upt.ro>) Metodologia_CNCSIS p. 9-10).

În accepțiunea noastră absolventul trebuie să aibă următoarele *competențe generale*:

- de înțelegere a fenomenelor sociale, a problemelor sociale și a nevoilor indivizilor, familiilor, organizațiilor și grupurilor sociale din perspectiva teoriilor clasice și actuale ale științelor socio-umane;
- de elaborare a unei cercetări proprii în domeniul social, utilizând metode științifice de cercetare și de prelucrare a datelor; aplică metode de cercetare cantitativă și calitative
- de utilizare a unei limbi de circulație internațională pentru înțelegerea unor aspecte de practică profesională;
- de comunicare interpersonală într-o echipă profesională;
- de educare și de informare a populației generale sau a celei cu risc;
- de elaborare de proiecte și implementare a lor, pentru promovarea acțiunilor privind bunăstarea populației.

Competențele speciale de care ar trebui să răspundă un asistent social sunt:

- de asistare, informare și consiliere pentru diferite categorii de persoane defavorizate: adulți vulnerabili, copii, adolescenți, vârstnici, persoane cu boli cronice, delincvenți, cu dizabilități, cu comportament adictiv, șomeri și alte categorii.
- de a stabili relații și rețele de colaborare între persoane din comunitate, profesioniști, voluntari, servicii și instituții;

- de a reprezenta interesele persoanelor, familiilor, grupurilor și comunităților asistate în vederea integrării lor sociale, școlare, profesionale și a asigurării unei cât mai bune calități a vieții;
- de înțelegere și aplicare a valorilor și principiilor etice referitoare la furnizarea serviciilor sociale de calitate, promovând dreptatea socială, egalitatea de șanse, nediscriminarea, demnitatea, unicitatea și autonomia persoanei, precum și asigurarea resurselor necesare unei vieți demne și dezvoltării personale;
- de diagnostic social, de evaluare a nevoilor și de aplicare a legislației asistenței sociale în vederea acordării unor forme de protecție socială celor aflați în situație de risc, la cererea acestora sau ori de câte ori este necesar.
- de implicare în activități de prevenire, terapie și de recuperare a persoanelor vulnerabile;
- de a contribui la aplicarea politicilor sociale și la analiza strategiilor și a planurilor de protecție socială la nivel local, județean, național și internațional;
- de participare la planificarea și managementul proiectelor și al serviciilor sociale;
- de sensibilizare a opiniei publice și de informare cu privire la problematica socială;

Aceste competențe în opinia mea se pot concentra în cinci categorii de bază (Albert-Lorincz, 2006, pp. 271-282).

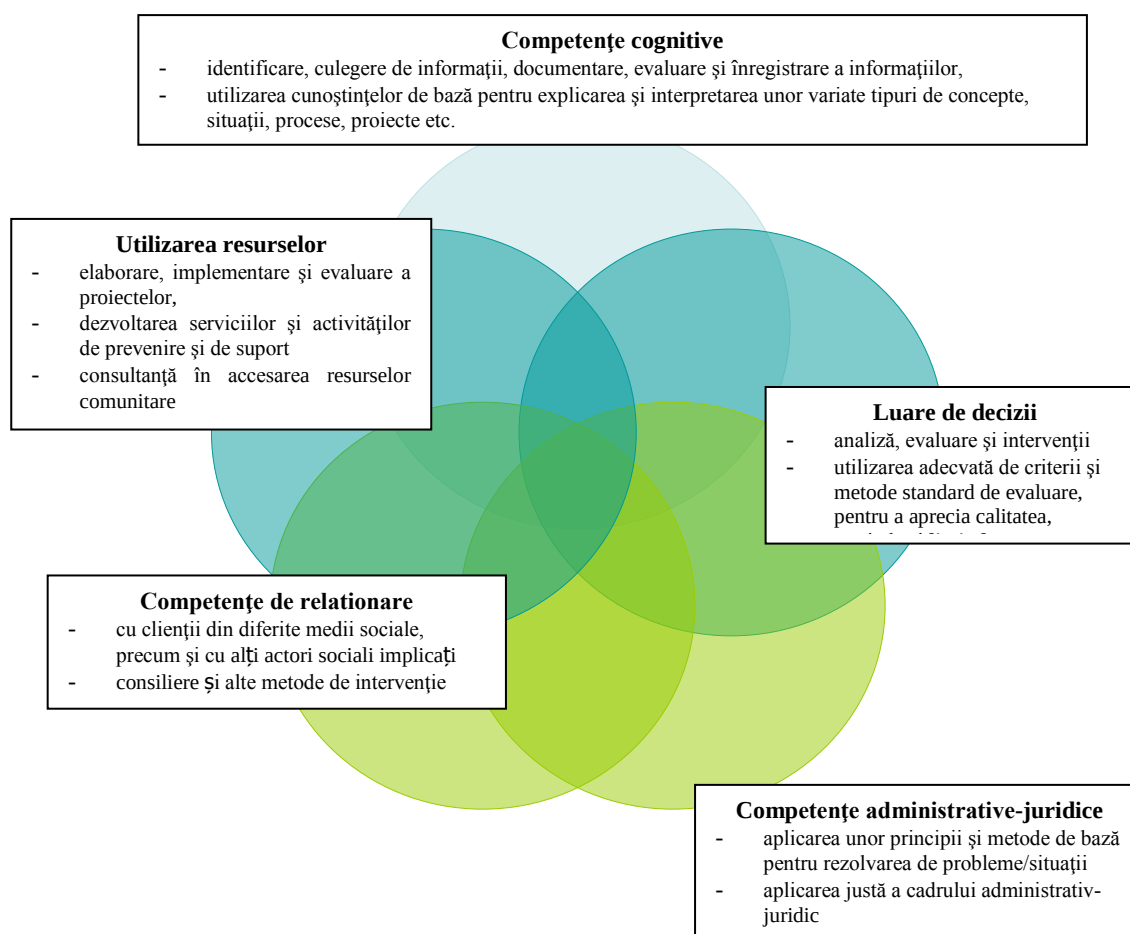


Fig. nr.2 . Competențe generale în asistența socială

Al doilea obiectiv al studiului de față este elaborarea – pe baza informațiile primite de la studenți – a unui model de formare pe bază de competențe, care ia în considerare solicitările muncii de pe teren. Interesul nostru se va concentra pe evidențierea competențelor necesare în planificarea și derularea intervențiilor sociale și a capacității de comunicare profesională, deci se va axa doar asupra muncii de relație, parte integrantă a asistenței sociale. Fig. 2. prezintă o sinteză a acelor competențe pe care le credem indispensabile în munca de relație.



4. Concluzii

Colectivul catedrei noastre prin viziunea sa, în conceperea planurilor de învățământ dorește să asigure formarea de competențe pentru intervenții eficiente, dar totodată și promovarea sănătății în rândul studenților, prin materii care dau informații asupra modului de viață sănătos, precum și prin activități interactive menite să dezvolte abilități prin care viitorul profesionist va putea să aibă grijă de propria sănătate și de sănătatea clienților. Numai o persoană echilibrată, care poate oferi empatie, acceptare poate desfășura o muncă de calitate în domeniul social.

Formarea competențelor profesionale și promovarea valorilor, precum și buna practică în asistența socială trebuie să aibă în vedere și percepția studenților legat de munca de pe teren.

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JOHANN KARL SCHULLER – TRADITION AND INDENTITY

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Abstract. The interest for the Romanian folklore appeared naturally in the case of Transylvanian Saxons, as a consequence of their co-inhabitation with the Romanians, of identification of certain common ideals, and of their desire to clarify "the problem of the Romanians origin and their kinship with other peoples". The Saxons believed it was their duty of honour to collect Romanian folktales, customs, volksongs, because "since we live together with this people, not only do we have to do it, but it will be much easier for us make our claims". An important Saxon intellectual figure of the 19th century is J.K. Schuller (1794-1865), historian, Germanist, folklorist, who, besides his interest for his own culture, collected and translated Romanian folk songs with the only goal to prove the Romanian identity. The present paper focuses on his activity regarding the Romanian culture.

Keywords: J. K. Schuller, Romanian folk song, translation, tradition, identity

Pe lângă interesul pentru științele umaniste care luaseră avânt începând cu prima jumătate a secolului 19, cel pentru literatura populară se evidențiază în mod deosebit nu numai datorită curentului epocii sau revoluției de la 1848 ci și dorinței de afirmare a etnicității. Legăturile sașilor cu spațiul german sunt puternice nu atât datorită studiilor pe care aceștia și le fac în universitățile germane (Berlin, Leipzig) sau datorită traducerilor sau lucrărilor publicate în patria de origine, ci mai degrabă din dorința de a arăta ce s-a păstrat din spiritul german în Transilvania. Sașii se orientează către cultura Germaniei mai degrabă decât către cea a imperiului, din mai multe motive. În primul rând varietatea graiurilor săsești obliga la găsirea unei limbi comune, care alta decât germana, iar lupta pentru oficializarea acestei limbi, care începuse să fie predată în școli de pe la mijlocul secolului, obligă comunitățile săsești să se unească în urmărirea scopurilor comune pentru obținerea unor drepturi în imperiu.

Cultul protestant era dominant printre sașii transilvăneni, cei mai mulți dintre ei fiind fii de pastori, iar studiul teologiei protestante era încurajat prin burse la universitățile din Berlin și Leipzig, astfel încât foarte mulți vor studia la Leipzig și/sau Berlin în ciuda opreliștilor puse de autoritățile imperiale, însă și atrași de mișcările progresiste din Germania primei jumătăți a secolului 19.

Trebuie amintit că însuși Herder explica la sfârșitul secolului 18 într-o recenzie a volumului lui August Ludwig Schlözer, *Kritischen Sammlungen*¹, greutățile întâmpinate de această „insulă transilvană de germanitate”, subliniind înțeleșurile istorice, politice și naționale ale volumului și laudând strădaniile germanilor transilvăneni:

Meritele lor sunt arătate de fapte...caracterul lor dovedește o înclinație spre ordine, strădanie consecventă, moralitate, prin urmare meritele lor pentru o cultură practică a

¹ August Ludwig Schlözer - *Kritische Sammlungen zur Geschichte der Deutschen in Siebenbürgen*, cu un cuvânt înainte de Harald Zimmermann, Köln, Wien 1979, vol. 3

omenirii sunt dovedite prin fapte. Adevărata filozofie a istoriei nu înseamnă a zugrăvi a priori istoria ci a ordona și a prezenta fapte²

Interesul pentru folclorul românesc a apărut la intelectualii sași în mod firesc, ca urmare a conviețuirii cu românii, a identificării unor idealuri comune precum și a dorinței de a clarifica „problema originii românilor și a înrudirii lor cu alte popoare”³. Aceștia considerau o datorie de onoare culegerea de basme, obiceiuri, cîntece populare românești, deoarece „trăind în mijlocul acestui popor avem nu numai pretenția firească pentru aceasta, dar ne va fi și cel mai ușor de a ne impune pretenția”⁴. Îndemnuri spre istoria și folclorul românesc au fost lansate și de către Asociația pentru studii transilvănene (*Vereins für siebenbürgische Landeskunde*), deoarece „tot ce e în legătură cu genealogia poporului român” este de mare importanță.

În acest context, o personalitate importantă a intelectualității săsești este și Johann Karl Schuller. Născut la 1794 la Sibiu într-o veche familie de intelectuali, învățatul sas își petrece copilăria la Cisnădie unde, trei ani mai târziu, tatăl său este numit paroh.

După absolvirea școlii gimnaziale din Sibiu, în 1812, Schuller pleacă la studii la Leipzig, important centru universitar pentru majoritatea tinerilor sași din Transilvania. Anii studenției îi va evoca în scrierile sale⁵ cu plăcere:

Pentru transilvăneanul aflat pentru prima dată în lumea largă, perioada petrecută la Leipzig a reprezentat o satisfacere deplină a curiozității sale.

Datorită războiului cu Franța instituțiile de învățământ din Leipzig se închid, Schuller fiind obligat să își termine studiile la Viena în 1814. Se întoarce în Transilvania și este numit profesor de istorie la Gimnaziul din Sibiu.

Mișcările de la 1848 îl obligă să se refugieze cu fiul său la București unde trăiește din lecții private; câteva luni mai târziu va pleca la Viena unde va fi însărcinat cu supravegherea noului sistem de învățământ în Transilvania, iar patru ani mai târziu i se va acorda Ordinul de Cavaler Imperial Franz Joseph pentru servicii deosebite.

Perioada petrecută la București este importantă pentru J. K. Schuller datorită primelor contacte cu poezia cultă și populară românească.

*Interesul pentru poezia populară românească se datorează șederii mele în București*⁶

Pe lângă interesul pentru istoria și cultura populară a sașilor transilvăneni, folcloristul sas se simte atras și de trecutul istoric și cultura poporului român făcând observații interesante referitoare la influențele românești asupra sașilor:

². *Ihre Verdienste sind aus Thaten entwickelt [...], indem sich das] ihrem Charakter früh angebildete gute Gefühl von rechtlicher Ordnung, ausharrendem Fleiß, treuer Sittlichkeit, mithin ihr Verdienst um die praktische Kultur der Menschheit durch Thaten erweist. [...] Die wahre Philosophie der Geschichte ist nicht die Geschichte a priori ersinnen und mahlen, sondern Facta darstellen und ordnen.* apud Helmut Protze - Leipzig und Siebenbürgen. Siebenbürger in Leipzig – în Zeitschrift für Siebenbürgische Landeskunde, 19 (1996), Heft 2, pg. 157

³ Joachim Wittstock – *Relații culturale dintre românii și sașii transilvăneni în anii 1800-1918 în Studii de istorie a naționalităților conlocuitoare din România și a înfrățirii lor cu națiunea română*, vol. II, Ed. Politică, București, 1976

⁴ Recenzie nesemnată a vol. *Walachische Märchen* de Arthur și Albert Schott, în *Archiv des Vereins für siebenbürgische Landeskunde*, serie veche, vol. 2, Sibiu, 1846, p. 498

⁵ J. K. Schuller- *Aus meinem Leben* în *Saechsische Hausfreund*, Brașov, 1860, pg.41-49

⁶ *Ibid*, pg. 46, *Die Lust an romanischer Volksdichtung ist eine Frucht meines Aufenthaltes in Bukarest*

Locuitorii unor sate inițial săsești, care aparțin comitatelor, au preluat portul românesc și au amestecat dialectul lor atât de mult cu cuvinte românești și maghiare, încât caracterul lor german abia se poate recunoaște.

[...]pe pământ crăiesc apar în gura țăranilor sași numeroase cuvinte românești în haină germană⁷.

În dorința sa de a explica originile și caracterul limbii române, J. K. Schuller publică *Argumentorum pro latinitate linguae Valachiacae s. Rumunae epicrisis*, Cibinii, 1831 în care compara limba română cu limbile germanice și greaca, încercare pe care o reia și mai târziu în *Dezvoltarea principiilor de bază pentru cercetarea limbii române sau valahe*, 1845. Ideile sale vor întâmpina rezistență din partea lui G. Barițiu în articolul *Ce limbă este limba românilor*, în *Foaie pentru minte, inimă și literatură*, 30 august 1843.

În studiul său din 1857, *Asupra unor remarcabile legende populare ale românilor* (*Über einige merkwürdige Volksagen der Rumänen*, Sibiu) Schuller prezintă și analizează trei balade din colecția lui Alecsandri, *Soarele și luna*, *Erculean* și basmul *Uriașul învins*; în prima baladă vede iubirea dintre Apollo și Artemis, basmul fiind o continuare a legendei lui Poliphem. Autorul folosește metoda comparativă, găsind elemente comune la antichitatea romană și elenistică, fiind de părere că doar aceste corespondențe pot răspunde unor aspecte privind originea și limba poporului român. Aceeași metodă o folosește și în studiul *Mănăstirea Argeș, o legendă populară românească* (*Kloster Argisch, eine romanische Volkssage*, Sibiu, 1858).

J. K. Schuller are o contribuție importantă și la teoretizarea unor aspecte de folclor prin inițierea unei culegeri de studii intitulată *Aus Siebenbürgens Vorzeit und Gegenwart*⁸ (*Din trecutul și prezentul Transilvaniei*) în care pe lângă propriile studii vor mai publica și F. W. Schuster, Franz Obert, J. Haltrich, G. D. Teutsch, H. Wittstock.

Traducatorul J. K. Sculler

O parte importantă a activității lui J. K. Schuller o reprezintă traducerile creațiilor populare românești, care se disting în general prin fidelitatea față de original, printr-o limbă adecvată și versuri reușite.

Spre deosebire însă de alți traducători ai vremii, traducerile sale au scopul declarat de a scoate la lumină existența spirituală a românilor, de a dovedi Vestului că, pe lângă cele trei nații principale trăitoare în Transilvania, există o a patra, nația română, cu tradiții și obiceiuri vechi, cu o cultură populară extrem de bogată, cu o identitate proprie, ale cărei origini pot fi dovedite comparând diferitele motive românești cu motivele existente în diferitele culturi populare ale țărilor vecine.

Debutază în 1852 cu un volum de traduceri ale unor poezii și proverbe românești culese de el în perioada refugiului la București, intitulat *Din Țara Românească. Poezii și proverbe românești* (*Aus der Walachei. Romanische Gedichte und Sprichwörter*, Sibiu) al cărui prim scop era de a familiariza pe conaționalii săi cu literatura cultă și populară românească. După cum el însuși mărturisește în prefață, ceea ce i-a stârnit curiozitatea a fost

⁷ J. K. Schuller – *Über die Eigenheiten der siebenbürgisch-sächsischen Mundart und ihr Verhältnis zur hochdeutschen Sprache* în *Archiv für die Kenntnis von Siebenbürgens Vorzeit und Gegenwart*, vol. I, Sibiu, 1841, p. 104

⁸ J. K. Schuller - *Aus Siebenbürgens Vorzeit und Gegenwart*, Sibiu, 1857

un volum de proverbe românești al lui Anton Pann, iar versurile lui Gr. Alexandrescu, D. Bolintineanu și I. Văcărescu dovedesc, în opinia sa, ”că geniul și limba acestei nații aparțin în egală măsură artei poetice” (”daß der Genius und die Sprache der Nation sich gleichmäßig für die Dichtkunst eignen”).

Prima parte a volumului cuprinde patru dintre cele mai cunoscute fabule ale lui Gr. Alexandrescu (*Șoarecele și pisica, Privighetoarea și măgarul, Cucul, Toporul și pădurea*), trei legende istorice de D. Bolintineanu (*Puterea cântecului, Mircea cel Mare și solii, Radu Domnul și fata din casă*) și cinci poezii de Iancu Văcărescu (*Cântec de pahar, Adevărata iubire, Privighetoarea, Ceasornicu îndreptat, Norii*).

În a doua parte, cărturarul sas traduce un important număr de proverbe românești dovedindu-și erudiția prin trimerile la (și comparațiile cu) proverbe cu același înțeles ale altor popoare (german, suedez, italian, arab, polonez, francez, grec ș.a.) sau prin explicarea originii unor proverbe. Spre exemplu:

Neben dem faulen Apfel verdirbt auch der gute. (proverb românesc n.a.)

Lângă mărul stricat se strică și cel bun.(trad.aut.)

Ein fauler Apfel macht zehn faule Äpfel. (d. und schwedisch.)

Un măr stricat strică încă zece. (proverb) german și suedez (t.a.)

Sau

Einem geschenkten Esel sieht man nicht nach den zähnen.

Calu' de căpătat nu se caută la dinți.

Geschenkten Gaul/Sieh nicht ins Maul (d. franz.) (proverb german și francez)

Pentru a evidenția specificul românesc, Schuller evită traducerea unor termeni, explicându-i însă în note de subsol

Wer mehr, als er verdient, gibt aus,

Bleibt ohne Mameligge in dem Haus.

(...)Mameligge: d.i. (...)Polenta aus Mais- oder Kukuruzmehl

Cine cheltuie mai mult decât câștigă

Rămâne fără mămăligă în casă.

Mămăligă: aceasta este polenta din făină de porumb sau cucuruz.

sau, în cazul primei părți, în prefață (un singur termen, Saalbe, salbă, colier din aur- monede de argint, perle ș.a.m.d.)

De la acest volum pornește și îndemnul publicat în ziarul *Telegraful român* de la Sibiu (nr. 23 din 1853) de a se colecționa producțiile populare orale, în primul rând cântece populare, povești și colinde. Rezultatele acestui îndemn nu sunt pe măsura așteptărilor, de vreme ce antologia din 1859, *Cântece populare românești (Romänische Volkslieder)*, se realizează mai mult cu ajutorul prietenilor decât cu cel al preoților români. Printre prieteni se numără Atanasie Șandor, profesor la Arad care culege materiale prin elevii săi, W. Schuster, Zaharia Boiu, profesor în Sibiu care îi trimite balada *Floarea soarelui*. Din cele 80 de balade și cântece doar 17 sunt culese, restul de 63 provin din colecțiile Alecsandri, Marienescu, A. Pann. În prefața acestei antologii cărturarul sas este surprins de varietatea și bogăția folclorului românesc și de talentul creatorului român, afirmând:

*Cine trăiește printre ei [români] are zilnic ocazia de a se uimi de cât de ușor și repede se transformă fiecare sentiment în cîntec. [...] El este o trâmbiță a gândurilor, trezește sentimente și imagini, prezentîndu-le în diferite forme.*⁹

Totodată, îndeamnă la o cercetare temeinică a poeziei populare, deoarece conviețuirea vechilor tradiții alături de creația nouă a poporului subliniază contactul dintre poezia populară și istorie.

Uimit de talentul și sensibilitatea românului va fi și F. W. Schuster¹⁰ care îi va trimite lui Schuller o colecție de 125 de cântece populare românești, dintre care două - *Cântecul soldatului* (Schuster), respectiv *Soldatul către mama sa* (Schuller) și *Febra dragostei* - sunt traduse de către amândoi în volume proprii.

Varianta românească din colecția originală (nr. 14) este cea de mai jos:

Eu mă duc maico la cătane,
Tu rămâi și spală haine,
Și le spală-n lăcrăniele,
Și le uscă-n gândurele,
Și tu maico le trimăte
Unde o hi steagu plecat;
Acolo-s maico culcat,
Și de pușcă-npușcat,
Și de sab'ie tăiat,
Și de călăreți călcat.

Zu den Truppen muß ich gehn;
Mutter, du wasch Kleider schön,
Wasche sie mit deinen Tränen,
Trockne sie in heißem Sehnen.
Dahin Mutter mir sie sende,
Wo die Fahne hängt gebückt;
Dorten lieg ich todumstrickt,
Von der Kugel Flug durchzückt,
Von der Säbel Hieb zerstückt,
Von der Rosse Huf zerdrückt.

Traducerea de mai sus îi aparține lui F. W. Schuster și a fost publicată în Programm des ev. Untergymnasiums in Mühlbach, 1862 cu nr. 9. Varianta e mai aproape de textul românesc original, Schuster păstrând aici numărul silabelor și al versurilor, precum și repetiția paralelistică enumerativă de trei versuri din finalul cântecului funebru și reușind o corespondență între fiecare vers românesc și traducerea lui din germană, cu același ritm trohaic din originalul românesc.

Varianta lui Schuller, publicată în *Romänische Volkslieder* este cea de mai jos:

Bin Soldat, muss in die Fremde;
Bleibe du und wasch' mein Hemde,
Mutter! wasch' es auch in Thränen;
Lass' es trocknen dann mit Thränen,
Schicke mir darauf es nach,
Wo mein Fähnlein stehen mag.

⁹ "(...)wer unter ihnen lebt, hat täglich Gelegenheit, sich davon zu überzeugen, wie leicht und schnell der Ausdruck jedes Gefühles zum Liede wird.(...)Er ist eine Gedankentrommel, ruft Gefühle und Bilder wach, und gibt ihrer Darstellung gefällige Formen." J. K. Schuller, *Romänische Volkslieder*, ed. Th. Steinhaussen, Sibiu, 1859, pg. III; Apud Ludwig Vinzenz Fischer, *Die Romänische Literatur in Deutschland. Ein Repertorium* în *Romänische Revue*, Viena, 1895

¹⁰ Friedrich Wilhelm Schuster (1824-1914) – important filolog, culegător și cercetător al poeziei populare săsești și românești; în studiul său *Über das wallachische Volkslied (Asupra cântecului popular românesc)* din *Aus meinem Leben*, ediție îngrijită de Horst Schuller Anger, ed. Kriterion, București, 1981

Dort am Boden sicherlich
 Liege todtgeschossen ich,
 Und zerhackt vom Säbelschnitt,
 Und zerquetscht vom Pferdetritt

După cum se poate observa, traducerea lui J. C. Schuller dovedește o atenție deosebită și pentru formă, el păstrând și ritmul trohaic și rimele, chiar dacă nu aglomerarea de rime din textul românesc, îndepărtându-se totuși, pe alocuri de sensul versurilor originale.

Dacă Schuster păstrează imaginea steagului plecat care anticipează moartea soldatului din următorul vers: "Wo die Fahne *hängt gebückt*/Dorten lieg ich todumstrickt", la Schuller imaginea se pierde (steagul stă drept, *die Kriegerfahne steht*), nuanța îi scapă, dispărând astfel și paralela între steagul plecat și moartea soldatului.

Schuster face o altă alegere reușită a cuvintelor, și anume *heißem Sehnen* (doruri fierbinți) pentru *gândurile*, ceea ce oferă o imagine mai puternică și mai aproape de spiritul românesc decât opțiunea lui Schuller de a păstra același cuvânt din versul anterior, *Thränen* (lacrimi).

Diminutivele din textul original românesc, *lăcrăniile*, *gândurile*, nu fac decât să sporească tristețea versurilor printr-o duioșie dulce-amară, iar Schuster pe bună dreptate se ferește de diminutivarea termenilor germani în traducere, acest lucru nu ar fi făcut altceva decât să aducă o notă copilărească, de voioșie traducerii, nepotrivită cu cântecul funebru românesc. Schuller diminutivează cuvântul steag, *Fähnlein*, ceea ce reduce din gravitatea versurilor românești.

În cazul celui de al doilea cântec popular

Colecția originală

Rele-s maico frigurăle	Rele-s maico frigurăle
Da-s mai rele dragoștăle;	Da mai rele dragoștăle
Din friguri maico mă scoate	Că din friguri zaci în pat
Da din dragoșt nu mă poate	Din dragoște umbli turbat.
Nr. 35	Nr. 36

publicat tot în *Römische Volkslieder*, Schuller alege aici o traducere liberă, preferând *Für die Liebe fehlt die Arznei* (Pentru dragoste nu există leac) pentru *Da din dragoșt nu mă poate* sau *Liebe treibt herum dich ohne Ruh* (Dragostea te urmărește fără liniște) pentru *Din dragoște umbli turbat*, ceea ce reduce din puterea imaginii ultimului vers. Nici ritmul nu se mai păstrează, fiind schimbat în ultimele două versuri *Hast du's Fieber, liegst im Bette du, /.....*

Liebesfieber

Fieberfrost ist schlimm, doch immer	Liebesfrost ist schlimm, doch immer
Mutter ist die Liebe schlimmer.	Mutter, ist die Liebe schlimmer.
Von dem Fieber machst du mich frei,	Hast du's Fieber, liegst im Bette du,
Für die Liebe fehlt die Arznei.	Liebe treibt herum dich ohne Ruh.

În varianta lui Schuster din *Programm....* se păstrează din nou rimele și ordinea lor, ba chiar avem de-a face, la fel la ca în textul românesc, cu un paralelism analogic și cu o imagine binară contrastantă ca figuri de stil, ceea ce subliniază înțelegerea profundă a cântecului popular românesc.

Mutter schlimm ist Fieberwut,
Schlimmer doch der Liebe Glut;
Aus dem Fieber rettet man,
Von der Lieb' es Niemand kann.
Nr. 21

Mutter! schlimm das Fieber tut,
Schlimmer noch der Liebe Glut.
Fieber mich ins Bette zwingt,
Liebesglut zum Rasen bringt.
Nr. 20

Activitatea lui Johann Karl Schuller se remarcă prin îmbinarea aspectelor teoretice cu filonul practic al culegerilor propriu-zise, evidențiindu-se ca un apărător al identității prin tradiție.

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USING MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE THEORY IN TEFL CLASSROOM

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Abstract: Each child and individual has a different intelligence profile. Some have better Mathematics skills whereas others are good at acquiring foreign languages. Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory states that there isn't just one type of intelligence but nine types which can operate in together or independently from one another. Multiple intelligences can be integrated into the teaching of English as a Foreign Language if teachers design and chose their activities according to their students' type of intelligence. Our study tries to reveal the importance of Multiple Intelligences in TEFL and the positive results it has with children of different ages.

Keywords: Multiple Intelligence Theory, TEFL classroom, skills, abilities, activities.

Introduction

A lot of methods of learning and teaching a foreign language have been used along the time and a great deal of research has been done into the subject. However, nobody can pretend that there is a perfect method. Each of them has advantages and, of course, disadvantages. Each of them was very effective and very modern at its time and became ineffective when another one was developed.

BEHAVIOURISM was based on a three-stage procedure where the three stages are stimulus, response, and reinforcement. Behaviourism, which was, after all a psychological theory, was adopted for some time by language teaching methodologists and the result was the audio-lingual method still used in many parts of the world. Constant repetition and reinforcement of the teacher formes the language "habbit".

COGNITIVISM, sometimes referred as "mentalism", refers to a group of psychological theories, which draw heavily on the work in linguistics of Noam Chomsky. He rejected the behaviourist view of language acquisition based on his model of competence and performance.

Chomsky maintained that language is not a form of behaviour, on the contrary, it is an intricate rule-based system, and a large part of language acquisition is the learning of the system. There are a finite number of grammatical rules in the system and with the knowledge of these, an infinite number of sentences can be formed in the language. It is competence that a child gradually acquires.

Language teaching has never adopted a methodology based on Chomsky's work or strictly upon cognitivist theories.

The **AUDIO-LINGUAL METHOD** also known as the "Army Method" is probably the most popular method currently. This language teaching approach is based on the premise that learning a new language means learning a new system of habits. It is an outgrowth of behaviorism, a school of psychology, which proposes that all learning is a process of conditioning, a process based on stimulus-response/reinforcement-and structural linguistics.

The **COGNITIVE-CODE LEARNING** in some respects is a modern version of the classic grammar-translation method. The major implications in cognitive-code learning are: a

language is a rule-governed system, students must learn the rules in a new language through analysis in order to use the language competently.

Language learning is more than a matter of habit formation, it is a creative process, and therefore the student should be given the opportunity to be as mentally active as possible in all assigned work.

HUMANISTIC APPROACH- there are several teaching methods and techniques that share with the school of humanistic psychology a concern for the role of affective (emotional) factors in language learning, among them Total Physical Response and Community Language Learning. Moskowitz describes humanistic techniques as those that "blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualisation and self-esteem are the ideals the exercise pursue. The techniques help build rapport, cohesiveness and caring that far transcend what is already there...help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves...help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language classroom." (Moskowitz 1978).

The primary aims are to help the students, through active participation, to develop more positive feelings about themselves and their classmates, to co-operate and support each other to grow and excel at their speech performance. This is also a rewarding experience for the teacher.

COMMUNITY LANGUAGE LEARNING (CLL) devised by Charles A. Curran and his associates, is closely related to Humanistic techniques and seeks to encourage to see their students as whole persons, where their feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships and desire to learn are addressed and balanced. Also known as whole-person learning, CLL is a holistic approach which views human learning as both cognitive and affective.

CLL does not follow a conventional grammar-based syllabus, but is primarily topic-based, with students suggesting areas they would like to cover. In CLL, learners typically sit in a circle of between six to twelve learners while one or more teachers, or knowers, who provide or correct target language statements, stand outside the circle. A learner first tells the knower what they wish to express in their own language, whereupon the knower translates it into the target language. The learner then repeats the knower's translation. This technique is used until students are able to apply words in the target language without translations.

TOTAL PHYSICAL RESPONSE (TPR) was developed by the American psychologist James Asher. It is referred to as "Natural Method" because it is a methodology based on the premise that adult second language learning develops in a similar way to that in which children naturally acquire their first language. When children learn their first language, Asher claims, most of the language directed towards them consists of commands in the imperative to which children respond physically before they are able to respond verbally. They might say: "Look at mommy!" or "Give me the ball!" accompanied by an appropriate gesture, and children then follow their parents commands.

Asher believed that if children learn their first language like this, then it followed that adults could also learn a second language in the same way. In the classroom the teacher and students take on roles similar to that of the parent and child respectively. Students must respond physically to the words of the teacher. The activity may be a simple game such as „Simon Says" or may involve more complex grammar and more detailed scenarios and it can

also be useful for story-telling. Though some say it is only really appropriate for beginners, it has, nonetheless, become a common tool in the language classroom, especially useful with lower levels and younger learners. As well as being fun, TPR caters to kinesthetic learners and requires few materials.

A recent approach is the **COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH**, defined by Jeremy Harmer as “a concentration on language as a means of communication focused on communicative activities”. Its aims are overtly communicative and great emphasis is placed on training the students to use language for communication.

As an approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been seen as a response to the Audiolingual Method and it emphasises interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of learning a language.

The goal of the Communicative Approach is to have one's students become communicatively competent. Communicative competence involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context. To do this, students need knowledge the speaker has a choice not only about what to say, but also how to say it.

Using Multiple Intelligence Theory in Teaching English

Intelligence is the human being's ability to reason, solve problems and understand complex, abstract things.

Some people are exceptional thinkers but prove to lack practical skills or emotional intelligence. Others, less gifted with logical-mathematic thinking have other gifts, talents in the field of art or creative activities. Thus, the types of intelligence coexist and people can be gifted in a certain area and weaker in other.

Each individual has a different intelligence profile but inborn s/he has them all. The educational process can be improved by using the students' intelligence profile and designing activities accordingly. Multiple Intelligences can be used in foreign language teaching, if the teacher uses specific intelligence based lesson. Teachers have to adapt the theme to suit to three or four dominant intelligence types in the classroom.

Gardner's Theory of Multiple intelligences tries to prove that people possess not less than nine types of intelligence. These types of intelligence develop differently in each individual, according to certain inborn features. Gardner says that our schools function according to linguistic and logical-mathematic intelligence. Unfortunately, each child which possesses another type of intelligence, artistic for example, is considered out of the pattern, out of the ordinary, even learning disabled. Many pupils labelled with ADD (attention deficit disorder) are actually pupils with predominant intelligence in other areas than linguistic and logical-mathematic.

In terms of language teaching, it is known that most classes function on reading and writing activities. Yet, there are pupils who do not function well in this type of learning environment. For them, the Multiple Intelligence Theory is a helping hand. The types of intelligence are the following:

Visual – spatial intelligence

This type of intelligence refers to one's ability of visually perceiving what surrounds us, of observing shapes, ideas and structures which can be memorized for a long time. Pupils

use a concrete image to synthesize and create new meanings. It is commonly used in writing and reading activities, as well as in painting, photography, drawings and sculpture.

Specific activities for the development of visual – spatial intelligence are:

- Experiments
- Photo essays
- Investigations
- Nature walks
- Recognition of things in the nature

Verbal – linguistic intelligence

It is represented by one's ability of using words, developing a rich vocabulary and learning foreign languages in an easy way. It is the most common type of intelligence; therefore sometimes others fail to notice it. Pupils possessing this type of intelligence learn easily if they hear the information rather than read it; therefore teachers should use CDs and other audio materials. Teachers develop this type of intelligence in listening, speaking, writing, word game activities.

Specific activities for the development of verbal – linguistic intelligence are:

- Listening exercises
- Vocabulary activities
- Grammar exercises
- Word games
- Oral presentation
- Summarizing
- Authentic readings
- Discussions and debates

Logical – mathematical intelligence

It is represented by one's ability to use logic, reason and numbers, to solve problems easily, to make future plans and to face challenges, It involves superior analytical activities and uses statistics, abstract concepts and calculations for problem solving.

Specific activities for the development of logical – mathematical intelligence are:

- Word order activities
- Categorizing
- Problem- solving activities
- Computer games
- Critical thinking activities
- Sequence events into story line

Spatial intelligence

Spatial intelligence has to do with vision and spatial judgement. Students possessing visual intelligence respond to visual cues and they like to invent and design. They are often artistic and have a strong visual memory. They are sensitive to colours, shapes, form, space and the relationships between these elements.

Specific activities for the development of spatial intelligence are:

- Making mind maps
- Making charts
- Taking photos
- Making videos
- Designing slide shows

The kinaesthetic intelligence

It is represented by the ability to use the body to solve problems, to share feelings and wishes. These students are skilled at physical activities such as sport and dance, mime, etc.

Specific activities for the development of kinaesthetic intelligence are:

- Dancing
- Field trips
- Movement games
- Mime or act out a story

Musical intelligence

Musical intelligence is one's ability to produce and interpret music, to identify a composer's style, pitch and timber. This ability is commonly used to reduce stress and release stress. For these activities it is necessary to be able to play an instrument, to sing and have artistic skills.

Specific activities for the development of musical intelligence are:

- Creating songs
- Singing
- Learning about music
- Creating rhythms
- Playing an instrument
- Having music in the background while studying

Interpersonal intelligence

Interpersonal intelligence involves the ability to understand others, their feelings and emotions, and also the ability to cooperate, socialize, analyse and handle emotions. It is the most common type of intelligence used by foreign language teachers. It includes: empathy, listening, team work, conflict solving, group guidance and organization.

Students who have interpersonal intelligence are excellent leaders, help their peers and work in team.

Specific activities for the development of interpersonal intelligence are:

- Interact with English speaking people daily
- Watch English speaking movies
- Written communication
- Interactive computer games
- Paired activities

Intrapersonal intelligence

People with intrapersonal intelligence have great self-knowledge; they know their strengths and weaknesses, their motivations and intentions. They are independent personalities, like to work alone and plan carefully their work. Intrapersonal intelligence is important in individual study and homework.

Specific activities for the development of intrapersonal intelligence are:

- Essays
- Journals
- Diary entries
- Research activities

Research on the use of MIT in TEFL

Methodology

The objectives of the empirical study (survey by questionnaire)

- Validation of direct survey data;
- Identification of mechanisms for using and developing certain types of intelligence
- Identification of correlation degree between the teachers' and students' answers;
- Determining the usefulness of using MIT in TEFL

Study sample: 150 students from the following high schools: "Moise Nicoara" National College of Arad, "Elena Ghiba Birta" National College, „Dimitrie Ţichindeal" Pedagogic High school, Secondary School No 5, "Vasile Goldis" National College, Arad and 20 English teachers from the same schools.

Method of data collection: direct survey based on a questionnaire filled in at school. Teachers had to answer another questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained 10 questions aiming to identify the students' type of intelligence and the:

- Types of activities they prefer;
- Their skills and abilities in a certain field
- The school subjects they like and are good at
- What activities do they dislike
- How do they picture a nice English class
- The variety of activities and methods used by the teacher

The questions were formulated as multiple choice questions but there were also two questions where students had the possibility to elaborate on their answers.

General results

The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire that would determine their predominant type of intelligence. Based on their answers, we present the following data:

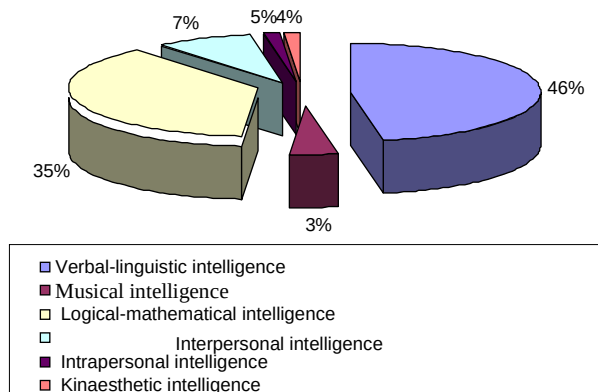


Chart no 1 – Students` intelligence type

As revealed by the students` answers, there are several types of intelligence among children of a certain age. Therefore, teachers should use activities do help all students improve their knowledge and give them the change to use their intelligence in a proper manner.

The teachers were asked to fill in a questionnaire so that we would identify whether they know what type of intelligence do their students possess and how often do they use special activities to develop each type of intelligence. The answers are presented in Chart no 2.

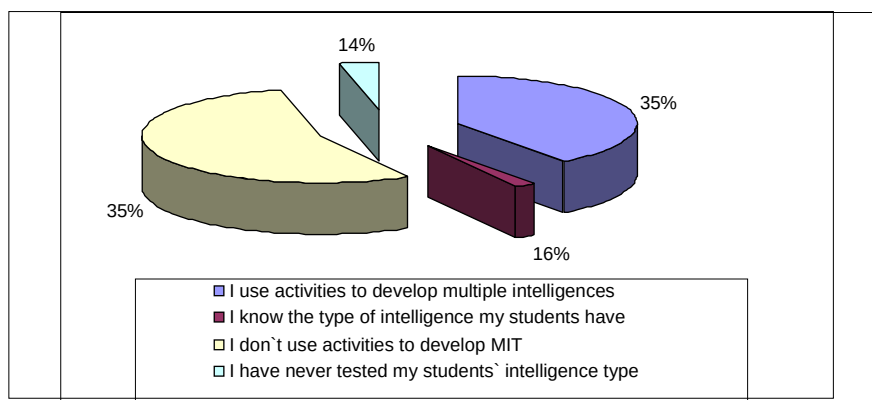


Chart no 2 – teachers` answers

As revealed by the teachers` answers, the results are equal in terms of activities used to develop MIT. There are teachers who are aware of the importance of developing the students` predominant type of intelligence and consequently they use activities to help them in their activity. There are also teachers who ignore the importance of letting children work in their own way and their own pace, and therefore don not use activities to support MIT.

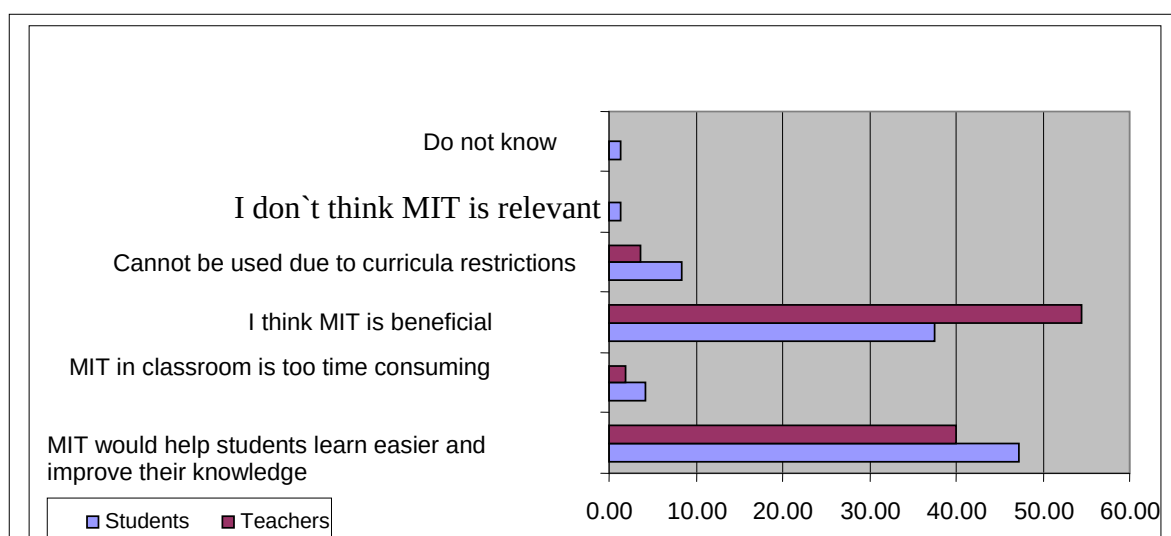


Chart no 3. The importance of using MIT

We can see both from teachers' and from students' answers that MIT is of interest to them. Both parties would be interested in spending more time in applying MIT in classroom activities. However, there are people who believe that MIT activities are more time consuming compared to other traditional activities and that using them may have a negative influence on the curriculum. Teachers as well as students fear that using MIT will lead to drawbacks in terms of curriculum coverage.

Conclusions

Teaching with Multiple Intelligence Theory increases the students' interest in studying and offers teachers the opportunity to organize their material in a pleasant and interesting manner. Students feel more comfortable if they are taught according to their own skills and abilities. Developing these skills offers them the change to be prepared for real life situations. MIT in TEFL is especially useful because students can apply and use their language skills in everyday situations and later on in their career. We believe that teachers should try to use MIT more often in their classes and accustom their students to working with activities connected to multiple intelligences.

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OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING IN EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

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Abstract: The decision to develop a program of open and distance learning is often taken at an educational organization as a result of "pressure" felt in the market or as a result of cost estimates showing that this form of education has a lower cost than traditional ones. This reality is at odds with the recommendations of experts, which suggest completing an evaluation process before the development of such a program. The article presents the steps in this process of assessment, current trends in adoption of open and distance learning through Internet use and the main areas involved in the development of this forms of education in the academic program.

Keywords: open learning, distance learning, educational policy, organizational decision, on-line education.

Open distance learning as a modality of action for educational organizations

Frequently, when it comes to distance learning program, the first impulse of educational managers is "to determine which courses will be converted to video, audio, or digital formats" (Watkins, 2000). Paradoxically, it rarely the case to determine the actual need of distance education: "The existence of educational needs that can be satisfied by specific methods of distance education does not automatically mean that distance learning is the best way to meet them" (Rumble, 1986).

Before the educational organization will decide whether or not to invest resources in a distance learning program, it is required a rigorous assessment of the needs underlying this decision and its possible consequences. Lack of or insufficient analysis of the possible consequences of the use of strategic planning in education often have unfortunate consequences, because if the impact of the open distance learning program development is little known, the organization may undergo several types of damage.

There are many models for conducting an assessment of needs by educational organizations (preliminary to the development of an open distance learning program); among the most cited models are those made by Robinson and Robinson (1995), Mager and Pipe (1997) and Kaufman (1992). Each of these models can be effective and provide technologies of assessment currently missing from the decisional process, at least in the local educational environment. Roger Kaufman's model is more rigorous, bringing together strategic planning, tactical and operational decisions, evaluation processes, focusing on organizational and societal value added. This type of assessment can be of great advantage when developing ODL programs and to justify difficult decisions. Kauffman states that three aspects should be addressed (all critical to the success of the needs assessment):

- 1) The first step in a needs assessment is to distinguish between goals and means, starting from the assumption that "learning is a mean, not a goal". Distance learning is only a means (among others possible) that can be used to achieve educational outcomes. Attention should focus here primarily on the aims defined by the educational organization (through own educational policy documents), before deciding that distance learning is an effective tool to achieve goals and to allocate resources for achievement.

2) There are three levels of results - all results of educational organizations can be classified into one of three categories, depending on the client / beneficiary (Kaufman, 1992):

- The first level is the one of "mega-results" , which refers to the aims of education . For the results that fall into this category, the primary "client" and the beneficiary is the society. Organizations in any industry (private, public, and non-profit oriented towards production, information management etc.) contribute in a positive or negative way in relation to society, according to the produced finalities.

- The second level is the one of "macro-results" at which different products are generated. "Macro" results are those claimed and received by specific customers / beneficiaries of educational organization;

- The third level of results is the one of "micro-results" which are internal to the organization. Individuals and groups within an educational organization complete a set of tasks and their products are used by other individuals or groups.

3) In deciding on the development of an ODL program we must not forget that the "need" is a noun, not a verb: in the context of needs assesment, this distinction is vital. By chosing to realistically refer to the needs and gaps identified in the organizational outcomes, the trap of premature alluring selection of solutions can be avoided (such as the immediate adoption of distance education)

Adopting an ODL program – a process of organizational decision

On the adoption of open and distance education, Ryan Watkins (2000, 2-3) described the following algorithm, which can be used by any organization in the field of education:

- Step one: Identify and align mission (s) of the educational organization. Step one is a difficult task in most organizations because different subunits thereof (eg. a university departments) may have defined their own missions, not always consistent to each other. The fundamental question that arises here is "How distance learning program facilitates the organization's mission?" Where the achievement of a distance learning program does not contribute to the overall mission, then the mission should be reviewed before any solutions of ODL type will be implemented. Technological solutions unrelated to the mission can lead to poor achievement and / or damage to the organizations. The implementation of a distance learning program should contribute to achieving the vision of the organization. Beyond aligning missions, educational managers should use competitive environment analysis and market analysis to validate the direction of the organization (Willis, 1994).

- Step two: identifying the needs. Needs can be defined in this context as discrepancies between current results and the results needed to achieve the organization's mission, program objectives and individual goals . The identification of needs requires both information obtained in the first step and collected information on actual performance and results of the organization. Needs assesment usually refers to the opinion data (through interviews, questionnaires, or other methods).

- Step three: prioritization and selection of needs in order to meet them. This process of prioritization and selection is critical to the success of any organization. How data are collected and analyzed will have two effects on the quality of needs assesment: (a) an extended period of data collection can cancel timeliness of assesment, and (b) if there are insufficient data, the assesment results can be invalidated.

- Step four: identifying requirements and alternative solutions. Before identification of alternatives, it is useful to define the requirements for settlement. These requirements will establish the criteria by which each alternative will be judged. Formulating specific requirements as to facilitate the listing of alternatives and selection of the "best" solution, which should include the requirements of time, cost, resources available and needed results. It is important to emphasize in this context that a distance learning program is just one of a possible solution for most performance problems encountered in educational organizations.

- Step five: Selecting the solution. Based on the analysis undertaken in steps three and four (the foundation of the first two steps) now is the time for decision. Deciding a unique solution may or may not be advisable. For many issues of educational organizations performance, a combination of good yield solutions usually produces the best results. Prior statements (like "we need a distance learning program" when a performance problem occurs in an educational organization) must not lead to a decision, but rather to be a part of a dynamic process. Needs assessment provides essential information to identify the right solution for the organization. Therefore, systematically implementing an algorithm of needs assessment, we will be able to proof the validity, usefulness, and confidence in the decision.

The evaluation process described above should be covered by any educational organization to develop an ODL program type as it has several distinct advantages:

- The process is guided by the mission of the organization;
- Aligning the mission will drive everything the organization does.
- Decisions are based on achieving measurable results;
- Rigor of the process can be adjusted to different contexts and constraints - Willis (1994) recommends that " the process should avoid becoming bogged down in detail";
- Assessment information will establish performance criteria and evaluation criteria;

These are some major advantages, especially in the context of distance education being adopted too early. Solutions of ODL can be successfully justified when needs assessment is complete. Long term availability and low cost of a distance learning program makes them competitive for achieving most of the objectives of educational organizations.

A thorough needs assessment process can provide certainty that a distance education program will meet these goals and therefore the organization's mission.

Trends in adopting open and distance learning

On the development of ODL in Western countries, Zane Berge (2010) sums up the works which deal with various existing trends in current organizations in the adoption of this type of educational programs :

- Technology and Society. The same technology that powers the global economy changes and stimulates the growth of what is called learning organization, fueling the need for continuing education for both organizations and individuals. Not surprisingly, this trend also involves transforming the way we deliver training in the workplace, using learning technologies and distance learning . Distance training can improve the quality of learning and performance of employees in an organization in an effective way (with a lower cost as compared to traditional methods), and organizations that take advantage of these opportunities will acquire a competitive edge in the market.

The power of adopting distance training solutions is an obvious one, by relating it to the traditional approach of training. The traditional approach involves the presence in the same physical space of the trainer and the trainees. The use of E-learning and the adoption of other adult learning ways produces a design and development of an active and authentic learning environment in organizational context, which often focuses on collaboration and teamwork.

- *ODL – a needed change.* In the current economic conditions, for a company to remain viable and profitable, the market does no longer allow the pursuit of common practices ("business as usual") on human resource management. Although ODL exists for decades, has not yet reached the critical point where the change of culture, economic conditions and the theoretical position would decisively influence a major change in education and training. In today's economic climate partial improvements are often insufficient, and significant changes within an organization ultimately occur when the organization is already in crisis.

By adopting ODL it is possible to significantly improve the way of training and education that becomes centered on the beneficiary and is generally characterized by collaboration and a constructivist approach. To make this possible it is necessary to improve employee skills and their performance on an order of magnitude beyond what can be achieved through traditional teaching methods. Thus, it is produced a change in the workplace that requires changes in the expectations, roles, responsibilities of all actors involved: instructors, students, managers, for organizations to develop their learning ability. Technology is a catalyst for change in society, economics, marketing and a reason to change the formation by using ODL.

Open and Distance Learning and The World Wide Web Learning comes from the practice of "independent learning" in which students who have not had access to a campus, studied using materials (eg, texts, summaries, etc.) sent to them by the university. Norma organization of independent learning was given by the fact that students do not comply with the time limits of a standard university or do not have a group of colleagues known to interact with. A considerable amount of programs based on independent learning was developed in the USA. However, other quality standards are required for e-Learning in emerging forms of individual tutoring based on the World Wide Web ("Internet").

Certain attributes of the World Wide Web have fueled the explosion of learning opportunities (Frydenberg, 2002): the ability to allow extensive sharing media (images, complex diagrams, video, audio); interactive communications and 'friendly' users; a multitude of ways that can be used in education (such as e-mail, virtual bulletin boards and chat rooms simultaneously); applications that enable "virtual classroom" (forms of Web communication - video and audio teleconferencing).

In the current social situation, most people will have to continue active / acquire a university level of understanding and will seek to improve their knowledge throughout life. This learning combined with involvement in the family, community and life, will cover an increasingly period of the individual's life.

Although its current development is exponential, the quality criteria for e-Learning are not generally well defined. There are very few reports on the effectiveness of e-Learning developed from the perspective of the learner. However, e -learning programs are most

commonly offered by higher education institutions in a way that virtually guarantees "full cost recovery" for those who would follow. However, students certainly apply market tests for these costs - especially the quality and value of service. Although higher education institutions (including Romanian) pay attention to provide students independent evaluation of programs, these evaluations are not always reliable. More research must be done to fully explore consumer standards for e -Learning and to integrate these standards with traditional academic concerns . Given the lack of consumer information, on the Internet are available - with few exceptions - the views of academic institutions , and rarely those of " consumer education" .

Areas involved in the development of an ODL in the academic environment

A number of areas are described repeatedly in the consulted field literature as a "core" of an ODL program (Frydenberg, 2002):

1. Institutional commitment –the development of an ODL program requires the presence of an institutional commitment to education and providing learning using technology. There is considerable variation in the understanding of what constitutes such an undertaking. It covers issues such as financial commitment, articulation with other policies, technical support, legal compliance, etc. Although the American Council on Education (1996) adds teachers and development staff and a research commitment to the activities on their list of requirements related to "organizational commitment", it does not specify that research must be directly related to distance education.

2. Technology - technological infrastructure needed to deliver an e-Learning program is often described as a separate domain as support materials (text , video, audio) quality as a component of the ODL program . The form of distance education, the role of technology is to promote interaction between students and between students and teachers. This interactivity is generally not defined by documents governing education and - in many cases - interaction with a computer in a complex, branched guiding learning through the process "step-by-step" is described as "interactive". American standards define interactivity by the presence of a human guide (faculty member or guardian) who leads the group of students to a learning objective (Frydenberg , 2002). In most cases, the standards under "technology" do not include criteria related to the accessibility to materials and interactivity and deeper technical issues (such as system maintenance, updates, redundancy, network access etc.).

3. Services for students. A third aspect of quality standards do not cover either teaching or learning - it is centered on the services provided for students. This area includes services needed before the "entry " of the students in a virtual class, the support during the learning experience and the relationship between students and the higher education institution or program after a course has been completed. Prospective students need to know, first, that there is a learning possibility and to obtain accurate information about it. For an organization-supplier, the decision to create an e- learning program should be based, in part, on an assessment of needs of learning and identifying an identifiable group of potential students. In this context, there is a difficult distinction to draw between marketing efforts and providing timely information to prospective students, and these documents and processes should be included in the evaluation of the ODL type of program .

Student counseling services are commonly referred to as necessary to maintain a high quality of e-Learning programs. There are here many systems, such as toll-free numbers, databases and software for students management (and contact management), counseling type "chat room" etc.. In addition, technical training through a course like "How to use our facilities virtual" is offered at most universities. One aspect of a quality educational program is access to support materials, which means - usually - access to a electronically available library.

4. Design and development of training courses - There are numerous standards for designing and developing e-learning programs. A report from Pennsylvania State University entitled *An emerging set of guidelines for the design and development of distance education* (1998) presents the following five aspects of design: 1) learning objectives and presentation of content ; 2) interactions ; 3) evaluation and measurement ; 4) the training and tools available , and 5) support services for students. In the academia, usually the same person performs the training and conceives the materials design . A faculty member does practically everything : determines the objectives of the course, sets what the students have to study , when and how they should study , and when and how to conduct the assessment . However, in e-Learning it is crucial to separate the two roles as distinct skills required to perform at high level in these two complementary situations . Quality benchmarks for the development of instructional design are different from those needed to run the process to facilitate learning . In addition, we are just beginning to explore ways in which the design of training should vary depending on the discipline or type of objectives or learning outcomes.

5. Learning and teachers - In addition to the benchmark for quality training in the face-to-face system (such as the depth of knowledge of the instructor, the style of presentation and organizational skills, encouraging dialogue attitudes towards the student, feedback and guidance etc.), one of the fundamental problems of education in ODL is given by the fact that the learning made by the student occurs mostly independently to the immediate influence of the teacher. Unless the design of electronic training course emphasizes openly that students are assessed on the basis of group tasks, students perceive themselves most likely only as interacting in a relationship student / tutor. It is obvious that this orientation contrasts with traditional academic way of developing courses carried out with hundreds students at a time.

Before teaching, an instructor must feel comfortable with the use of means which provides the class and - hence – he may need training and guidance. During the e-Learning program, technical staff should be available to assist instructors in solving technological problems.

6. Delivering - Some standards in the field of e-learning include delivery as a separate domain. Delivery of ODL programs takes place in the "institutional context," taking into account various aspects such as coordination, supervision, and articulation with other educational programs. A good program delivery depends on two aspects: 1) the definition of policies, procedures, responsibilities; and 2) communication, including sound and impartial information. Ideally, program delivery and administration of the ODL program must be transparent to the learner in all aspects, as is the existence of a student in a university campus.

7. Financial aspects - The impetuous desire for the development of courses and e-Learning programs do not always take into account the current practices of ongoing education regarding financial matters. There are numerous examples of wrong assumptions about the

functioning of ODL programs in this regard, for example, the naive assumption that e-learning platforms can be protected permanently from the point of view of copyright or incurring the cost of teacher salary levels could be performed regular tuition to hundreds of students, together with a significant savings of resources. None of these assumptions proved to be true in practice.

As in other types of educational programs, there are the costs of e-Learning. Universities have undertaken the production of comprehensive programs from scratch, often found that ongoing expenses are inversely proportional to the amount of courses that will be produced. An interesting benefit of this practice is the early development of "learning objects", which involves the creation of "molecules" of learning that can be developed once and then shared and / or obtained with license by others. There are now a number of large-scale experiments based on this concept (see, eg <http://www.wiadlcolab.org>, <http://www.adlnet.org>, and <http://www.imsproject.org>). Licensing content, either as objects or complete or partial courses generally are based on the business model where content owner receives a fee for each student.

8. Legal compliance - Regulations on e-Learning is growing. The two primary sources of U.S. regulators are regional accreditation agencies that have a long history in the United States, and since 1990 there is an evaluation of the American Federation of Persons with Disabilities, with considerable discussion in the community about e-learning on how to ensure certain standards. From this point of view, e-learning promises much, especially for students with mental or physical disabilities.

Legal compliance also relates to intellectual property. Intellectual property issues are hotly debated in any education system that includes ODL programs.

9. Evaluation - The evaluation program is frequently mentioned as a separate documentation describing the requirements of ODL. Here are two specific issues:

- Assessment of learning outcomes of students as part of the design, related to the specific objectives of the course;
- ODL program evaluation, which is a meta-activity that includes all aspects of e-learning experience

On-line platforms for the development of ODL

Currently, the number of ODL programs are in exponential growth, including both colleges and university programs and training or retraining of adult training in companies etc.

Therefore, the number of sites for this type of education is steadily increasing both in terms of sites presenting educational programs and the promotion of the practice of this type of education. Regarding the latter category, we compiled a ranking ad-hoc on-line platforms for the development of ODL, which I will illustrate with web sites included in the reference list. Of course, it can not be an exhaustive classification, but the fact that a "census" of these websites would be almost impossible to achieve.

Based on the criterion of addressability to the providers of ODL programs, we could define the following categories of online platforms for the development of ODL:

a) resource centers for academic users in the same space:

(<http://depd.wisc.edu/html/reports3.htm> - University of Wisconsin-Madison, Professional development resources in distance education and e-learning sau

<http://www.wcet.info/2.0/index.php?q=Publications> - WCET (Western Cooperative for Educational Telecommunications);

b) Resource centres for ODL program providers at national or sectorial level:
<http://www.educause.edu/resources> - EDUCAUSE Resource Center sau
<http://www.nces.ed.gov/> - National Center for Education Statistics;

c) platforms of national organizations of providers of ODL programs, such as:
<http://www.usdla.org/> - United States Distance Learning Association;
[http://www.flexiblelearning.net.au/Australian Flexible Learning Framework](http://www.flexiblelearning.net.au/Australian_Flexible_Learning_Framework);
<http://www.cnie-rcie.ca/> - The Canadian Network for Innovation in Education sau
<http://www.saide.org.za/> - South African Institute for Distance Education)

c) sites of international organization including providers of OODL programs of certain educational areas: <http://www.elene-tt.net/project.htm> - European collaboration for improving Teacher Training; sau <http://www.elieu.org/> - E-learning for European languages and literatures.

d) informal structures of peer-review type of the ODL programs:
<http://www.eclo.org/index.html> - European Consortium for Learning Organizations;
<http://www.obhe.ac.uk/home> - The Observatory on Borderless Higher Education sau
<http://www.detc.org/> - Distance Education and Training Council.

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CAREER DECISION – A PROCEDURAL APPROACH

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Abstract: In the career choosing process there are many factors and mechanisms that can interact and influence the career decision.

The career decision has three main components that lead to performances and stability in the profesional life.

Keywords: career, decision, counseling, career plan, strategy.

Conceptual boundaries

"Career counseling is the process of maximum compatibility between resources, requirements, aspirations and personal interests of an individual and the real offer provided by education, training and socio-professional integration." Career counseling is a service that addresses the individual in a holistic, continuous and flexible manner throughout all cycles of his life and in all significant aspects of his roles in school, at work, in social life or community, family and free time. This service is reflected in information, advice and guidance offered to all applicants by accredited professional advisors (Jigău, 2007, 20).

In career counseling approach lies an important career decision. This is "the process of selecting a career alternative from the set of options available at a given time" (Băban, 2001, 220). We make decisions every day of our lives, some more important than others, but not all of them involve rational psychological mechanisms. Sometimes reaching the decision automatically follows under our lifestyle, values and experience that we show at a time, and sometimes - high-stakes decisions - such as the ones related to career choice - "they involve interests, energies and perspectives essential for the general good of the person" (Chiru, 2007, 498).

As such, the personality resources activated in the decision making process, must be known, the person's value system, his level of availability for full exploitation of current circumstances and, equally, we must consider the components of career decision that we will approach below.

Elements of career decision making

The context of career decision is given by all factors that influence the content and decision making process. Among the relevant factors in this process we mention the most important:

- knowledge about themselves (interests, values, skills and personality characteristics) are the result of the self-discovery approach and the more accurate, clear and well-structured they are, the more career decisions are stable in time and closer to the optimal decision;
- parental factors - parents are the strongest influence on children by emphasizing personal values and guiding children to accept these values; sharing experiences from the workplace, boosting employment activities and behaviors; providing a feedback

about career alternatives etc.;

- school factors - school related performance requirements, teaching methods, teacher attitudes (authoritary or democratic) to students;
- group of friends - are a significant source of influence on young people's career plans. Friends are selected based on similarity of attitudes and behaviors, and as the friendship develops, the similarity increases;
- work experiences - through direct confrontation with various work tasks, young people's are testing their own values about the work they perform and redefine their own value system. Many times young people reported that work experience has harnessed vision work.

The content of the decision refers to the actual problem that requires a decision.

Possible career issues as:

- school choice and profile study (eg theoretical high school, art school, medical school etc.)
- choosing a profession (IT, accountant, lawyer, driver, psychologist, teacher etc.)
- choosing a particular course of education (eg school teaching - Faculty of Pedagogy - Master in Education);
- choosing the appropriate professional skills training (volunteering, apprenticeship etc.)

The decision making process itself includes a number of steps that have a greater or lesser importance in the economy of career decision, based on the content and context of the decision.

Defining the decision and indicating alternatives include: awareness of the need to make a career decision; defining and identifying the content of the existing alternatives to make the decision. Note that the decision alternatives available and accessible at any given time are determined by the context of the decision.

Exploration and evaluation of available alternatives. At this stage, based on predetermined criteria, alternatives are evaluated to identify the best option. Among the most important criteria we find: compliance with the expectations of the person (desired lifestyle, the expected activity, educational level concerned, etc.); costs and benefits of choosing the option. Criteria underlying the assessment of alternatives are unique and correspond to each person and the importance given to them is dependent on the priorities set to them.

Career plan. Based on the selected alternative, at this stage is established an action plan to implement the decision. The plan may relate to: how the knowledge and skills necessary for practicing the chosen field will be acquired; how the educational offers or trades will be explored; how to self-promote etc.. Career plan can be considered a real map that will guide the individual towards achieving a successful proposed destination.

The content of the career plan aims at: *purpose* - it can be defined in terms of outcomes, processes or desirable events. It provides the direction to take and allows analysis results. *The objectives* are subsumed to the main goal and define specifically what the person wants to achieve. Effective objectives imply the involvement of the person - they are made by the concerned person and are related to its purposes; they are action oriented, indicating a

particular direction, ie the sequence of actions to be taken to achieve the goal and they are formulated specific, measurable, realistic, temporal. The *strategies* are the practical way on which the decision maker has stopped to accomplish his objectives.

The enforcement of the decision is the stage where the plan set is applied exactly. It implies consistency and flexibility to adapt to unexpected situations, being considered effective those plans that take into account unexpected events and allow a reassessment and rehabilitation plan.

Reassessment of the decision provides review and improvement for the decision making. This allows on the one hand, the identification of "strong" points of the decision and on the other hand, correcting certain difficulties which occurred in different stages of decision making (Lemeni and Miclea, 2004).

Conclusions

Sometimes we make choices under the influence of impuls, sometimes, as career choice, is extremely important to know the steps described above, in order to streamline the process of career decision and finally obtain an optimal solution for each of us.

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POSTMODERN EDUCATION IN THE CONTEXT OF GLOBALIZATION

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Abstract: My intention here, as regards the concept of postmodern education, is to draw attention on the lack of coherence and clarity in this very important area of contemporary education, and to offer some relevant distinctions in order to make the concept more plausible. Initially my paper deals with a series of descriptions of the complex phenomenon of globalization, provided by various discourses and domains, aiming at highlighting some common values and principles. The next step is to clarify what is and what is not relevant to my topic, from all the aspects characterizing the various discourses on postmodernism. Then I focus on the main general trends in what is called postmodern education, and also on their specific educational effects. My final considerations will show a sceptical attitude toward the embracing of this new perspective on education in its present form.

Keywords: cultural relativism, education, globalization, multiculturalism, postmodern education.

Globalization on a descriptive level

The phenomenon of globalization has aroused numerous approaches in its defining or description since the very beginning, and sometimes it triggered an abundance of considerations and assessments. Therefore, I deem it fit, for the purpose of this paper, to operate the necessary selections and to extract a leading line relevant for the topic of education.

I shall quote below just a few of the descriptions made to this phenomenon by various authors in the economic, political, social and cultural domains; we shall thus be able to highlight the intertwining of different levels and references, from plus to minus, from appreciations intended to be neutral to evaluations verging on prophecies, from assertions regarding facts to others touching upon subjective perceptions.

- George Soros describes globalization as “the free capital movement”, while adding that it is accompanied by the “dominance of global financial markets and of multinational companies over the national economies” (Soros, 2002, p. 15);
- Ulrich Beck regards the phenomenon from a different angle, as “an escape of the politics from the categories of national state and even from the schema defining what is «political» and «non-political» action” (Beck, 2003, p. 13);
- Various authors, under the coordination of Serge Cordellier, invoke the “dream of the global creed” observing however that it decayed due to the “increase in the number of the excluded” (ed. Cordellier, 2001, p. 81);
- Zbigniew Brzezinski associates globalization to the “global modernity model”, arguing that it is put forward by the American society which is “the first global society in history” (*apud ibidem*, p. 77.)

The distinction I deem useful in approaching this theme is that between the *descriptive* level of the globalization phenomenon and its *normative* level.

- 1) The *descriptive level* focuses on this phenomenon from the angle of its objectivity of deployment – all those spontaneous and hasty changes at international level, the processes and events that naturally emerge from them, according to statistical

objective laws, involving both the social, economic, cultural environment and the natural one;

- 2) The *normative level* is more centred on that vaguer, subjective scope of projects, strategies, measures, directions of action based on evaluations, planning, predictions etc. in all fields of activity that impact upon all the above-mentioned environments, deliberately, consciously modifying them through politics and policies.

As I see it, the normative level is still brought up for discussion after decades of debates on globalization. At least in its current phase, globalization seems tailored after a highly Western pattern, which is exactly the reason why it stumbles across criticism; some analysts pinpoint its tendency of exporting or even imposing a style and a form exemplifying the American society (Martin & Schumann, pp. 354-361). In this regard, Dumitru Borțun observed that in many cases the subject of public rejection is not the globalization, but “a globalisation à l'américaine” (Bornu, 2012, p. 30).

Therefore, since we have yet to hear a unifying voice at least regarding the opportunity of a broader, strategic directive encompassing our entire civilisation, I shall further focus only on the descriptive level. I shall make use of a definition of globalisation relating to phenomena, processes and events bearing a higher degree of objectivity, which are notorious and which we may all agree upon.

Broadly speaking, to my understanding, *globalization* is this tendency of enhancing the interdependencies and cooperation between states, regions and continents as well as the acceleration of the rhythm of the economic, technological, informational, cultural international exchanges.

Elements such as communications, trade, tourism, immigration have proliferated on an unprecedented scale since the end of last century, given the political orientation from various regions of the planet to democratic regimes. Hence, the hastening of interconnection and circulation even in the most remote areas equally characterises money and goods on the one hand and ideas, values, individuals on the other.

Considering these circumstances, the interest of education shall be build, unquestionably, around a normative level, starting, however, from the descriptive particularity of globalization. Two German authors specialised in the European facets of the phenomena argued as follows:

“The correct answer to globalisation resides in a productivity competitiveness of companies and states. We need good training, good schools, good universities, good research institutions, good infrastructure both for roads and railways and for the *data highways*.¹” (Lafontaine & Muller, 1998, p. 17).

The entire book focuses on the fact that *productivity* is the key word and, at the same time, the main means of boosting the economic development and the life standard of this world of current interdependencies, whereas *competitiveness* is the criterion of sustainability of the activities and measures that serve this purpose.

As regards information, the speed with which it circulates and interconnects the most secluded and remote communities inspired Marshall McLuhan in coming up with the metaphor that compares the “new world” to a “global village” (McLuhan, 2011, p. 138).

¹ Subl. n., C. S. M.

The context of postmodernism

It is again essential to make some distinctions and selections in order to preserve, from the large spectrum of the discourses on postmodernism, what is useful and significant here. And this is due to the fact that the specialised literature indicates that the sciences of education do not and, in my view, they cannot find inspiration directly from the conceptions of some renowned representatives of postmodernism such as François Lyotard, Richard Rorty or Michel Foucault. It is a too large precipice between the theoretical thinking paradigm of pedagogy and the mental games of approaching reflexivity, truth or human condition in the philosophy of the mentioned representatives. It seems inconceivable, for instance, to assimilate in the scientific, thus strongly theoretical, discourse an anti-theoretical vision, or the deconstruction of the axiological modern underpinnings (Lyotard, 1996); or to wed the educational ideal to a discursive perspective on man, as a mere construct of modernity (Focault, 1996); or to foster community, social, national and international values while embracing a rather individualistic perspective of the liberal ironist (Rorty, 1997). These are just a few examples of incongruities, as I see them, but the list can continue. In addition to that, if we were to adopt in education a new model of postmodern inspiration, should we go for a single perspective or for more? And how would we harmonize them? I believe that adopting one of them would mean completely changing what the sciences of education represented thus far and this would equal to a theoretical revolution or a theoretical abandonment impossible to account for. Only the radical change of the human being would enable us to pose the challenge of stepping into another pedagogical era. Moreover, the field of pedagogy is so constructed that it cannot promote new directions, new goals and objectives, oblivious of their precise target, not knowing the overall picture of determinisms, conditions and the vast implications thereof.

These aspects are under debate and I subscribe to David Lyon's opinion that they require a "debate on the current society's nature and directions in a globalising context" (Lyon, 1999, p. 132).

Current trends of postmodernism in education

From the available literature, I managed to synthesize the most extended postmodern trends in the context of globalization which I deem viable for the future of the field called the sciences of education:

- the elimination of the "great themes", the pedagogical correspondent of the *great generalizing narratives*, triggering totalitarianism, a dominating ideology and the congestion of the secondary and post-secondary syllabuses (Cristea, 2010, 112-114) ;
- the valorising of the communication codes and the orientation toward the creative one, within a formative, open and global space (*ibidem*);
- the multiplication of the formative styles within the curricular educative project (*ibidem*).

Considering the actual effects of such megatrends, we can distinguish and deduce the following:

- the increase in relevance of the person that acts responsibly in the social space, that is competitive and adapts to the new work requirements and circumstances, that boosts the student's importance as *person* in the unfolding of the educative process. He *constructs* its own personality (Păun & Potolea, 2002, pp. 19-20);
- the current theoreticians' (psychologists, anthropologists, epistemologists) awareness on the fallibility of the knowledge and theories used along the years, as well as of the ideologies restructures the teacher-student interaction on the basis of cooperation, relativizing the epistemic and moral authority of the teacher;
- the attitude-related and civic relaxation of the postmodern society, paralleled by the competitiveness and the migration of the labour force further humanizes the teacher's attitude toward the student, making the former consider not only the rational but also the affective-emotional side of the student. The latter, undergoing a personality-building process, should be thus trained to cope with the frequent changes of social environment in which he will work and live;
- the cultural relativism led to a more lax approach regarding interpretation and meaning, inducing in education another perspective on learning, one in which the teacher and the student participate in the construction of meanings and takes into account the different cultural contexts (*ibidem*).

Final considerations

This synthesis represents, in my opinion, expected trends and effects rather than precise directions, given the general cultural change of society and even of the civilisation we live in. I refer here to a change, in an anthropological sense of the word, both at the objective level of globalization as well as at the subjective one of Occidental intellectual discourses and options for postmodernism.

As Linda Hutcheon puts it, the initial concern of postmodernism is “to point out that those entities that we unthinkingly experience as ‘natural’ [...] are in fact ‘cultural’; made by us, not given to us”; therefore, postmodernism “de-naturalises” dominant features of our way of life (Hutcheon, 1997, p. 5). This is an effect of cultural relativism – the new paradigm of thinking that reveals the subjective, historical, contextual or ephemeral particularity of some principles and fundaments that once seemed to be self-asserted and, eventually, be universally and everlastingly valid. However, as I argued in another paper (Matei, 2014), at least in the field of education, the concept of postmodernism gives away a risky ethical relativism. It is a negative effect the scholars in various domains (philosophy, anthropology, social psychology, ethics) still have to deal with. And that's in spite of cultural relativism's good influence on disavowing ideologies, prejudices, racism and many other kinds of discrimination. Still moral relativism could not be accepted as it leads to the dissolution of values and norms which are vital for the existence of any community.

A modern author wrote about the change in education as follows: “when a certain change is not operated in the spirit of existent values and of the beneficiaries' experience or it opposes the structural characteristics of the receiving institution, the odds of success are slim; this is the crucial difference between changing things and changing people...” (Huberman, 1978, p. 103).

As I see it, this opinion is as important today as ever, although it was launched more than three decades ago. It is more natural to accept that we cannot use the same methods to promote changes for things (events, relations, structures) and for people than to call into question, in a postmodern spirit, either the author's view on values, or the weight of experience or the contextual nature of the involved principles.

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CROSS-CULTURAL TOPICS IN THE BUSINESS ENGLISH CLASS**Elena Ciortescu, PhD Candidate, "Al. Ioan Cuza" University of Iași**

Abstract: It has long been argued that intercultural communication is essentially different from general communication, i.e. it requires techniques meant to enable speakers with different cultural backgrounds to exchange messages in general and in a business context, in particular. In order to do so, students must acquire the ability to cross the linguistic and cultural border. Therefore, in this case, the EFL teacher's role is to facilitate his students' adjustment of attitudes towards other cultures by creating the appropriate ground to discover, compare and interpret other cultures. The aim of this paper is to explore a number of cross-cultural topics able to provide students with the necessary skills to communicate in English in today's intercultural business environment

Keywords: culture, communication, intercultural theories, cultural metaphors

Geert Hofstede referred to culture as "the software of the mind" and most people identify it as "the way we do things around here", whether "here" refers to a country, a region, an ethnic group or an organization. However, culture is most often defined as "a shared system of attitudes, values, meanings, beliefs and behavior." By far, the most interesting analogy related to culture is the one provided by James R. Chamberlain: understanding culture is like understanding the mechanism by which children learn their first language – instinctively, unconsciously, contingent upon their environment; (...) besides linguistic competence, children acquire communicative competence, i.e. learning to use the appropriate speed and volume of speech, pitch and tone of voice, chuckles, sighs, gasps, etc. to communicate a highly nuanced range of emotions. Besides that, they learn extra-linguistic communication: gestures, mimics, body language, when it is their turn to speak, etc. As they grow, they acquire cultural competence: which groups of people should be shown respect, which type of behavior is acceptable for men and which for women, which food one may eat, in one word, they become social actors. (Utley: 7)

Therefore, we may assume that in order to achieve intercultural skills, learners must make some behavioral adjustments or at least become accustomed to the cultures they are supposed to interact with. As Chamberlain points out, according to Milton J. Bennett, trainers have three main goals: a) cognitive (adding to the learner's stock of knowledge), b) affective (changing the trainee's attitude by developing openness, tolerance, acceptance and awareness) and c) behavioral (trainees learn the dos and don'ts of the new environment). Moreover the content of the learning process should comprise: anecdotes and descriptions related to the facts and figures, rules of address and conduct, historical development of the target culture. (Utley: 8) However, by introducing learners to the dos and don'ts related to functioning successfully in a new culture, the trainer should avoid stereotyping for although the use of a list of the appropriate/ inappropriate things to do may seem extremely appealing, the danger of stereotyping in this case is imminent.

Next to sexism, racism or religious intolerance, stereotyping is a type of prejudice which "occurs when someone claims that members of another culture all share the same, often inferior or offensive characteristics." (Utley: 41) The most often encountered examples

of nation-related stereotypes are that Germans are arrogant or that British are hypocritical. Whether based on the influence of inherited characteristics, on education, religion or a sense of superiority, stereotyping should be avoided by all means especially when teaching intercultural issues. As Robert Gibson suggests, in order to avoid creating the medium for developing fixed ideas, we may resort to insisting on “generalizations about tendencies in cultures – what most of the people do most of the time.” By so doing, we must ensure that our students acquire the ability to understand, tolerate and adapt to other cultures.

The question which immediately arises is whether this target could possibly be attained since there are (at least in the EU) 28 different national types (if we consider culture in terms of nationality). Whether limiting the sphere to geographical, religion, race, or regional divisions, the above mentioned purpose is still out of reach. Richard Lewis identified a three-group classification of cultures: *linear-active*, *multi-active* and *reactive*. To him, Asians are *reactive* for they would either tend towards the *linear* or *multi-activity* types according to the context: if dealing with Germans, they will be punctual, factual and well-planned (therefore, *linear*); on the contrary, if dealing with Spaniards or Latin Americans they will most likely adopt a more flexible attitude (therefore, *multi-active*). Among the *linear* cultures, Lewis mentions: Protestant Scandinavians, Catholic Swiss, black and white Americans, Semitic Israelis and rich and poor Australians. Therefore, we notice that his categorization crosses racial, religious, philosophical and class borders. *Multi-activity* is to be found with Latins, Slavs and Africans. Lewis concludes that *linear* cultures are task oriented, highly organized and good planners - a set of features which makes interaction difficult between them and the more people oriented, loquacious *multi-active* cultures. Moreover, according to Lewis, unlike the *multi-actives* who have a difficulty (related to time management) in interacting with *reactive* cultures, the *linear* ones' interaction with the *reactive* cultures is quite satisfactory especially due to the latter's introvert, respect-oriented listeners. (Lewis: 8)

It is in this context that we turn towards Martin Gannon's metaphors. By relating them to Lewis's findings, we get an interesting insight into culture. Asians are among Lewis's *reactive* cultures; to Gannon, the metaphor which best describes the Japanese is *the Japanese garden*. The fluidity nature of water illustrates how the Japanese perceive their culture; according to Gannon, “water's composition of tiny, individual droplets that have power only when combined with others parallels the Japanese view of the individual. (...) And the beauty, tranquility and oneness of the garden with nature are illustrative of the Japanese values of harmony and aesthetics. (...) The Japanese believe that it takes a great deal of discipline to achieve harmony with the natural world, but that the individuals have potential to achieve this harmony through self-mastery and discipline of the spirit or *seishin*. (...) The Japanese tend to <flow with the current> over and around small obstacles or differences in opinion which makes them more tolerant to others.” (Gannon: 129, 130-1)

Another eloquent example that Gannon refers to is the German *symphony orchestra*. We may assume that, to Lewis, Germany is among the *linear* cultures (if considered close – historically and geographically - to the Protestant Scandinavians' group). Gannon states that “German culture is represented by the symphony's staying power, its harmonization of individuals and their talents into an intricate and beautiful work of art, and its well-developed organization and complex set of rules. (...) Germans tend to believe that individuals have

tremendous potential (...); however, they also tend to believe that humans are extremely fallible and must constantly strive to avoid failure. (...) The role of individuals is to perform to the best of their ability as a small part of the harmony that is the symphony.” (Gannon: 119, 120).

We have seen so far that the interaction between *linear* and *reactive* cultures can lead, both in Lewis’s and Gannon’s terms, to positive outcomes. However, things are different in the case of interaction between a *linear* or *reactive* culture and a *multi-active* one. When considering Italians (included by Lewis in the *multi-active* category), Gannon compares their culture to the *Italian opera* which includes elements such as: “operatic overture, pageantry and spectacle, voice or lyrical quality, more vowels than consonants, (...) the belief that the individual cannot keep thoughts and emotions to himself/herself. Thoughts and emotions must be expressed, first in the family and then in the piazza, (...) interaction between soloists and the group, and between regional identity (North or South) and national identity.” (Gannon: 67)

Although both Lewis’s and Gannon’s approaches are extremely interesting and undoubtedly useful for the study of culture, bottom line research in the field is provided by Geert Hofstede. His work is focused on the influence of culture on the workplace. He identifies five dimensions of national culture: *power distance*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *individualism/collectivism*, *masculinity/ femininity* and *time orientation*. The *power distance* dimension is very much related to the acceptance of the unequal distribution of power, i.e. the degree to which employees are independent, to the presence of hierarchical structures, accessible bosses and to the idea of progress by evolution or revolution; *uncertainty avoidance* revolves around the degree to which people can take risks, accept conflict and stress and work without rules; the *individualism/collectivism* dimension is centred on the degree to which people work in groups or alone and relate to their task or to their colleagues; finally, the *masculinity/femininity* dimension is about the degree to which people believe in consensus, put work (or, on the contrary, family) at the centre of their lives and expect managers to use intuition. (Utley: 62, 63) *Time orientation*, i.e. the degree to which members of a culture expect long or short term success, is also one of Hofstede’s indices.

Conclusions

We may conclude that the most appropriate activities when dealing with Undergraduate Business students are undoubtedly those based on Lewis’s and Hofstede’s categories, in which case an association to Gannon’s cultural metaphors would prove extremely useful. Whether deliberately or not, Business trainers include cultural elements in their classes for, as Richard Lewis states, “the English language, like any other, cannot exist in a vacuum or be disembodied from its speakers with their innate sense of time, space, authority, appropriacy, morality and sensitivities.” (Lewis: 9)

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LEARNING DIFFICULTIES AND EFFECTIVE INTERVENTION IN THE CASE OF STUDENTS WITH ATTENTION DEFICIT AND HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER

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Abstract. The manifestations specific to attention deficit and hyperactivity emerge and develop in the context of mainstream school and the psycho-pedagogical intervention depends, in any context, upon teachers' experience and knowledge. Compared to their peers who do not have such disorders, students with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder have difficulties in forming the organizing, planning and time management skills. School adjustment difficulties these students have can be ameliorated through structured and customized psycho-pedagogical intervention programs. This paper aims to test the effectiveness of such a psycho-pedagogical program. In our opinion, the psycho-pedagogical literature concerning the intervention programs in the case of manifestations specific to attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder belongs to the exploratory (observatory) and formative - ameliorative parceling intervention types.

Keywords: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, psycho-pedagogical intervention, graphic-motor organization, planning skills, reading automaticity.

Introduction

School is a challenge for students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, this disorder being usually diagnosed when the child goes to school, that is after the age of 7, precisely because of the fact that symptoms worsen as a consequence of the increasing demands of attention, organization of activities and other school responsibilities. School environment is a context that requires planning, control, coordination and evaluation of interactions and ways of active participation in the educational process.

Starting from the principle of the differentiated education, it is admitted that all students must receive educational influences adequately, according to their individual characteristics and needs. By applying psycho-pedagogical intervention programs in the case of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, equal chances of development can be ensured.

Reading and writing particularities encountered in students with ADHD

Following the completion of a study aimed at detecting the students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder who were integrated in the mainstream education, there were identified the difficulties that appear in the area of reading and writing, in the *Language and Communication* curriculum area.

In what concerns the pupils involved in the research, in their dictation papers were found several mistakes consisting in the substitution of letters and even groups of letters. For example they wrote *grişă* (instead of *grijă*), *steşar* (instead of *stejar*), *etaş* (instead of *etaj*), *cospodărie* (instead of *gospodărie*), *cıncaşă* (instead of *gingaşă*), *jnur* (instead of *şnur*), *schimp* (instead of *schimb*), *gând* (instead of *când*), *fânt* (instead of *vânt*), *brichindel* (instead of *prichindel*) etc. There were substituted especially the sounds whose points of articulation were close (c - g; ş - j; t - d; f - v; etc.), as well as the consonants ş - s; m - n; s - ş, for

example *restea* (creștea), *păpusa* (păpușa), *înbogăți* (îmbogăți), *schimb* (schimb), *Ton* (Tom) etc.

There were found several mistakes in the use of "i" in written language, in the sense that the grapheme "i" was omitted: *ochi* (instead of *ochii*), *galben* (instead of *galbeni*), *dinț* (instead of *dinți*). The omission of "i" after the letter „ț”, for example, generates a rough pronunciation of the letter „ț” (and other hissing sounds) and the transformation of „i” in „î”; when it is semivocalic and final, it disappears completely. For many children, the hissing sounds „ș” and „ț” are pronounced roughly and contain the "i". When replacing the 'e' with 'i', the student takes into consideration some phonetic methods, rather than the determinations based on disorders from the cognitive, perceptive or auditory- spatial sphere. For example, the transformation of "e" into "i" in the words: *făcia*, *urechia*, *vechie*, *lighian*.

In the dictation papers, there are also inversions, especially inversions anticipating the graphemes: *princhidel* (prichindel), *unc* (nuc), *jelete* (Degețel), but they are not frequent.

Errors were found also in the spelling of consonant combinations. Difficulties that appear in their phonemic analysis is explained by the fact that the student fails to perceive and distinguish clearly both elements that make up the word, because they are, on one hand, closely united, and on the other hand, one of the consonants overshadows the other.

The degree of association of two or three consonants is also determined by their resemblance and by the way in which the transition from one to the other is made. This transition can sometimes be very smooth and sometimes less smooth, depending upon consonants' acoustic and kinesthetic resemblance. In the first case, if they are also similar, the consonants are strongly merged, one of them losing completely its individuality. In the second case, the connection between the consonants is not that strong and they can be more easily separated. A characteristic example of the first category of words is *astfel*, where "t", whose presence is not that obvious, disappears from its place next to "s", to which it resembles in terms of the articulation point.

At the written test, for which the students had to reproduce the ideas of an orally presented text, prevailed the dysorthographia, which was less common at the dictation test. Most experts believe that the dysorthographical phenomena, even if they give the impression of being separated from the reading – writing disorders, turn into dysgraphia and dyslexia. Borel - Maisonnay, S. (in E. Verza 1983) points out that dysorthographia has negative implications in learning to read and write and in acquiring knowledge.

After the task for which the students had to express in written the ideas of an orally presented test, there were highlighted various mistakes: omissions, substitutions, additions of letters, poor vocabulary, repeatedly used words, ignorance and disrespecting of the grammatical rules. The ideas related inversely compared to the action's real course, for example:

*“The snake left hissing.
I'll bite you! I'll bite you!
The bunny befriended the hedgehog. ”*

show difficulties in terms of the representation and spatial-temporal orientation, organization and planning.

Vocabulary problems are usually due to disorders at the level of the acoustic-vestibular perception and generally at the level of cognitive processes, with negative implications on performing analysis and synthesis operations as well as on the discrimination of verbal symbols.

It was found that a relatively high number of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder have lexical problems, which has repercussions on text comprehension. The student is unable to read and identify the word as a whole, as a global entity with a specific significance and sense. In some cases the transition from analysis to synthesis, from literalization and spelling to the synthesis of the word is achieved with difficulty. Some students show difficulties in reading words with a higher degree of difficulty or polysyllabic words, fact that determines the dyslexic to try to guess the word. Interestingly, there were cases in which students were hesitant, asking if they could whisper read / silent read first and then read loudly (to become familiar with the text).

They perceive the syllabic components as standalone units, while the longer words are read entirely, only after some stumblings.

Their attention is focused on reading the word as a whole and on the shape of the word in order to make the reading fluent, and as a consequence the text is not well understood.

The meaning of larger units, syntagms, sentences and phrases is even more difficult to understand and as a consequence of focusing attention on disparate units, the context and subcontext do not fulfill any longer the role of substitution and completion of information. Hence, a number of difficulties in reproducing what has been read and in reporting to some references with collateral ramifications to the basic idea. The students read with difficulty, with mistakes, slowly, hesitant, with stumblings and blockages, with omissions, distortions or substitutions of words.

It should be noted that in most cases with lexical-graphical disorders there are striking deficiencies in what concerns the spatial organization, as well as some disorders in temporal organization. Reading activities imply compliance with the rules concerning the succession and spatial-temporal organization. Placing the graphemes within the page presents qualitative value depending upon the spatial orientation and the organization of the signs, in terms of shape, but also structure and succession.

Hypothesis and objectives of the research

Given the theoretical premises concerning the attention deficit hyperactivity disorder associated with learning difficulties, the following research hypothesis was formulated: *The development and use of the organizing and self-organizing skills and of those skills that are specific to reading and writing, support significantly the elimination of reading and writing difficulties.*

In order to test the formulated hypothesis, the following objective was taken into account: the investigation of a psycho-pedagogical intervention program based on two components: techniques for developing the organizing skills in students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and techniques for developing the organizing skills, associated with the self-organizing skills, in ways customized for learning difficulties.

The independent variable was represented by the psycho-pedagogical intervention program.

The dependent variables that are significant for this research were represented by: variables targeting school performance: reading automaticity, reading comprehension, written expression; and variables targeting the executive functioning: graphic-motor organization and visual-spatial skills, planning and visual-spatial memory, planning, monitoring, self regulating and problem solving skills. There were also categorical variables: the *grade* the student with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder associated with learning difficulties and receiving drug treatment was enrolled in, the *drug treatment* these students receive or not and the *type of attention deficit and hyperactivity*.

Research methodology

For the entire psycho-pedagogical intervention program (organization component with general character and organization, self-organization component specific to learning difficulties) was chosen a within-subjects experimental approach, of the type pretest - intervention - post-test.

The study was conducted on a group of 42 students with attention deficit hyperactivity. There were evaluated reading and writing skills (using the Three Minutes Text Test, measuring reading automaticity; the reading comprehension test and the image composition test) and the executive functioning, using the neuropsychological tests (Rey complex figure test and Tower subtest from the NEPSY test battery).

The first part of the pedagogical intervention program structured on general character organizational component, lasted eight weeks and was implemented in the classroom by the teacher, in the case of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and associated learning difficulties. The intervention consists of a set of techniques aimed to develop and consolidate the general organizing skills. During this program (8 weeks), new techniques were introduced and the previous ones were consolidated. A cumulative consolidation was achieved. In accordance to the findings, the deficient behaviors were consolidated.

The second part of the psycho-pedagogical intervention program was applied, this program being structured on components specific to reading and writing. This intervention program was implemented by the teacher during 16 weeks in the case of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and learning difficulties.

Before and after the completion of the entire psycho-pedagogical intervention program, students were assessed with instruments targeting reading and writing (the Three Minutes Text Test, reading comprehension test and image composition test) and neuropsychological tests: Rey - complex figure test (copy -recall) and Tower subtests (Nepsy), establishing its effectiveness.

Interpretation of results

Following the application of the intervention program on the organizational component of general character (partial post-test), there are positive correlations between the variables of interest in the research, concerning the graphical - motor organization and visual-spatial abilities (Rey test - copy) and the variables concerning school performance: those concerning the comprehension of the text read (reading comprehension, $r = 0.57$, $p < 0.01$) and written expression (image composition, $r = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$); positive correlation between the

variables concerning planning and visual-spatial memory (Rey test - recall) and the one concerning the written expression (image composition, $r = 0.40$, $p < 0.01$).

At the level of the 2nd grade, the correlation was positive between the variables concerning reading automaticity (Three Minutes Text Test) and the one concerning reading comprehension (Reading Comprehension, $r = 0.58$, $p < 0.05$), but also between the variables: planning, monitoring, self regulation and problem solving (Tower subtests) and the variables concerning reading comprehension (reading comprehension, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.05$) and the one targeting written expression (image composition, $r = 0.87$, $p < 0.01$).

In the 3rd and 4th grades there are many correlations between the variables of interest in the research, obtained using neuropsychological tests and those assessing school performance; in the case of the 3rd grade, the correlations were very strong between the variables targeting the graphic- motor organization skills and visual-spatial skills, but also those concerning planning skills and visual-spatial memory (Rey - complex figure) and the variables obtained with school tasks; between the variables concerning planning, monitoring, self-regulating and problem solving (Tower subtest) and the one concerning reading comprehension (Reading Comprehension, $r = 0.70$, $p < 0.01$). In the case of the 4th grade, there were strong correlations between the variables covering planning, monitoring, self-regulating and problem solving (Tower subtest) and the ones assessing school performance ($r = 0.91$, $p < 0.01$ - Reading Comprehension, $r = 0.89$, $p < 0.01$ – Image composition) and between the variable targeting the comprehension of the read text (reading comprehension) and graphic-motor and visual- spatial organizational skills (Rey - copy) with Pearson coefficient $r = 0.61$ at a significance level $p < 0.05$.

In what concerns the correlations of the evaluations from the partial post-test (organizing component of general character), when controlling the type of attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder, it was observed that there was no improvement in the case of the hyperactive type and that in the partial post-test there were no correlations between the variables. In the case of the inattentive type there were strong correlations between the variables from neuropsychological tests and those from academic tasks; and although weaker, correlations may be encountered in the combined type as well. In the case of the attention deficit hyperactivity disorder – predominantly hyperactive type, the number of subjects participating in the research was quite small (4 students), fact that could explain the lack of significant correlations.

Comparing the same variables of interest in research, from all the assessments, before the intervention (pretest) and partial post-intervention, based on the organizing component of general character, was observed the existence of a difference between results, in the sense of obtaining better results in all the assessments from the partial post-test, compared to the scores from the pretest. The average of the results in what concerns the formation of the graphic- motor organizational skills and visual- spatial skills (Rey test - copy) increased from 32,50 to 44,64 ; the ability to express ideas in writing (image composition) increased, the average reaching 48,10 in the partial post-test.

There are high correlations between the variables of each pair and all these correlations are significant, for example, the highest Pearson r coefficients ($r = 0.84$, $p < 0.01$ for the variable concerning graphic- motor and visual- spatial skills - Rey – copy; $r = 0.95$, $p <$

0.01 for the variable concerning reading automaticity Three Minutes Text Test) show a major difference that occurred in the case of children between the two measurements.

The higher scores obtained by students in the partial post-test are not due to random variations, but may be clearly assigned to the educational intervention performed between the two measurements.

There are no differences concerning the categorical variable *grade* in the case of the improvement of students' academic performance. Results were better for most students, regardless of the grade. In the case of students from the 3rd and 4th grades, there are statistically significant differences between the partial post-test and the pretest, at a significance level $p < 0.01$ in the case of all variables. In the case of students from the 2nd grade, the exceptions are represented by the variables related to reading comprehension, which is not statistically significant, probably because in this period prevails the consolidation of the reading skills and the deficient attentional resources cannot yet process the text read.

Results improved significantly, in the case of students who received medical treatment but also in the case of those who did not receive medical treatment, this condition not causing differences between the results from the partial post-test at the neuropsychological tests and those of school performance. All differences are statistically significant at a significance level $p < 0.01$.

In the case of the hyperactive students, as the number of subjects is very small, there are several variables in which, although there appear improvements between the pre-test and the partial post-test, these improvements are not significant. Based on the *t* values, one can observe a statistically significant difference between the performance of the group with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, between pretest and partial post-test, which indicates a change of the executive functions' performance after the implementation of the intervention program based on organizational techniques. There were significant improvements in the automaticity of reading, but not in reading comprehension or written expression.

In the case of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder - the predominantly inattentive and combined type, the implementation of the first component of the psycho-pedagogical intervention program was effective in terms of improved performances between pretest and post-test on the organizational component of general character (differences were significant at a significance level $p < 0.01$).

The study investigating the effectiveness of the psycho-pedagogical intervention program, structured on components specific to reading and writing is a continuation of the experimental study. This study continued the data analysis resulted from the application of the second component of the psycho-pedagogical intervention program, based on the development techniques of the organizational skills, associated with self-organizing skills specific to reading and writing.

In the case of all pairs of variables, the averages between the partial post-test and the final post-test increased. In other words, there is a difference between the results, in the sense of higher scores in all the variables in the partial post-test, compared to the scores from the final post-test (except the reading automaticity, where the difference between the averages is not significant at a level < 0.05).

Analyzing each pair of tested variables, the value of the correlations between the variables and the level of significance, it was observed that there are high correlations

between the paired variables (except for reading automaticity, whose coefficient is significant at a significance level < 0.05) and that all these correlations are significant at a significance level < 0.01 . For example, the highest Pearson coefficients (0.84 in the case of the graphic-motor organization and visual-spatial skills, 0.85 in the case of planning and visual-spatial memory) show a strong correlation between the two measurements.

Given the fact that for all pairs of variables the level of significance is 0.000, we can conclude that the better results obtained by the pupils in the final post-test compared to the partial post-test are not due to random variations, but can be clearly attributed to the educational intervention performed between the two measurements.

T-test was repeated on paired samples on these variables, controlling also the variable grade (students were enrolled in the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grade). The differences between averages, on each pair of assessment tools, show statistically significant improvements, regardless of grade: the results improved in most of the students between the partial post-test and the final post-test, regardless of grade.

Next, the same test was used in the context of controlling another variable, to see if there are differences in the performance of students who received medical treatment and the performance of those who received medical treatment. In the case of controlling this variable, the results are also conclusive: results improved significantly in the case of students who received drug treatment, but also in the case of students who did not receive drug treatment, as this condition does not produce differences in the results of the final post-test compared to the partial post test, neither at the neuropsychological tests nor in school performance tests.

Another attempt was represented by the repetition of the test, controlling the variable type of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. On what concerns the types of ADHD, analyzing the results divided into the three types (hyperactive, inattentive and combined), we can say that in the case of students belonging to the inattentive and combined groups, the psycho-pedagogical intervention was effective, in the sense of the significant improvements of school performance between the partial post-test and the final post-test. In the case of the hyperactive students results are not significant, the differences between the results are not significant at a level < 0.01 (for none of the variables), but most of them are significant at a level < 0.05 (planning and visual-spatial memory; planning, monitoring, self regulating and problem solving skills; reading automaticity, reading comprehension, written expression).

The six variables (covered by the tests: Rey complex figure - copy and recall, Tower subtest, and the tests concerning school performance) will be compared before the intervention (pretest) and after the final intervention (final post -test). In the final post-test, for each pair of tested variables, there appear again the value of the correlations between the variables and the level of significance. It was observed that there are high correlations between the results of each pair of variables and that all these correlations are significant at a significance level < 0.05 . For example, the highest Pearson *r* coefficients (0.62 for the graphic - motor organization variable, 0.60 for the planning and visual-spatial memory variable) indicate a major difference in the case of students between the two measurements.

Better scores obtained by students at the final post-test, are not due to random variations, but may be clearly assigned to the psycho-pedagogical intervention performed between the two measurements.

The variable grade was also controlled (students were from the 2nd, 3rd and 4th grades), repeating the *t* test on paired samples on the same variables. All the differences between the averages indicate statistically significant improvements on each pair of evaluation, regardless of grade: the results improved in most of the students from pretest to the final post test, regardless of grade. It should be noted, however, that at the level of the 3rd grade, the improvements are noticeable.

The same test is used in the context of controlling another variable, to see if there are differences in the performance of students who received medication and those who did not receive medication. When controlling this variable, results are also conclusive: the results were significantly improved in the case of students who received drug treatment but also in the case of students who did not receive drug treatment; this condition did not cause differences in the results of the final post-test, in the neuropsychological tests or in the school performance tests.

T test was repeated, taking into account the type of attention deficit and hyperactivity. Analyzing the results, divided on the three types of attention deficit and hyperactivity (hyperactive, inattentive and combined), it can be said that in the case of students belonging to the group with attention deficit hyperactivity—the predominantly inattentive and combined types, the psycho-pedagogical intervention was effective, in the sense of a significant improvement of their performances between the pretest and the final post-test. In the case of the hyperactive children, there is one variable in which, although improvements occur between pretest and the final post-test, these improvements are not statistically significant. (graphic - motor organization, where the significance level is > 0.05).

Conclusions and discussions

The psycho-pedagogical intervention program was conducted over a period of 24 weeks and may be applied by the teacher in classroom, in order not to disturb the smooth running of the educational activities. The program was structured on two components: a component of organization, self-organization of general character and a component with a character specific to reading and writing difficulties. The formed organizational skills were used throughout the intervention program, in order to automatize them.

In order to identify learning difficulties in the area of reading and writing, an ascertaining study was conducted after testing the following skills: dictation, listening comprehension and reading a text at first sight.

The better results obtained by students with attention deficit hyperactivity associated with learning difficulties, in both phases of the revaluation, after the implementation of the first part (based on the component of organization of general character) and after the implementation of the second part of the program psycho-pedagogical intervention (based on intervention specific to reading and writing) demonstrate improvements in students' school performance.

We can therefore say that in the case of students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, the psycho-pedagogical intervention program was effective and that it should integrate contents and experiences from the field of factors impacting on attention deficit and hyperactivity disorders.

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CONSEIL ET COMMUNICATION**Alexandra Silvaș, Assist. Prof., PhD, "Petru Maior" University of Târgu-Mureș**

Abstract: A coherent system of counseling requires the existence of trained human resources, an institutional, information, counseling and orientation services network, an ethics code and quality standards of practical work, as well as a set of working methods appropriate to the populations targeted by these services. Such a perspective imposes a re conceptualization, re systematization and reconciliation between the classic and modern, in the specific methodology area of counseling, depending on more extensive and diverse fields criteria. Our country's socio-economic dynamics requests more and more professional counseling services, offered mainly through different institutional networks of education and labor. The evaluating competence of the advisors is basic, together with individual and group counseling, implementation of career development programs, information management and using the computer and communication technologies for counseling.

Keywords: communication, counseling, orientation, education, competence

L'orientation, comprise comme une action de réglage, est abordée par des divers spécialistes comme Dewey (1972) respectivement Rotaru (2002).L'une des formes spéciales que l'idée générale de conseil la prend est celle d'**orientation** et de **guidage**. Le premier terme, **orientation**, suggère le fait que les tendances actives du conseiller sont dirigées, d'un cotée, vers un déroulement continu d'influences et de diriger les adolescents, et d'un autre cote, vers une orientation avec un caractère d'orientation. Le terme **guidage** transmet l'idée de soutenir, par collaboration avec celui qui est conseille, en respectant ses capacités natives. Dans sa qualité de conseiller, il évitera la tendance de contrôler, en restant sensible à la relation de coopération conseiller-conseillé, la seule qui garantie le résultat gagner-gagner. Ce réglage conduit à l'orientation des aptitudes et réalise l'auto- contrôle obtenu par le sujet, lui-même. Une bonne orientation implique un centrage et un contrôle de l'action, en éliminant les confusions inutiles. Cette action suppose, spécialement, des compétences de communication.

On a démontré qu'il n'y a aucun type d'activité qui ne suppose la collaboration avec un autre, dans une certain mesure. On a établi que la relation de conseil, la maîtrise de l'art de communication est une nécessité. Les habiletés du spécialiste d'*écouter*, dans l'activité de conseil, sont essentielles.

La communication interpersonnelle didactique se produit dans l'activité d'orientation scolaire, aussi. Ainsi, Dewey proposait pour cette activité l'action de *réglage et influence* (Dewey, J., 1972).

La séance de conseil

La séance de conseil individuelle – présente quelques particularités qui lui confère un certain degré de spécificité, en ce qui concerne une forme d'interview. Le conseil suppose une succession des rencontres entre deux partenaires. Fréquemment la première rencontre est la plus difficile. Le conseillé arrive au conseiller par: approches directes; sollicitation de la parte d'un proche; l'appréciation du conseiller, comme une nécessité de rencontrer l'élève.

Règles élémentaires de conseil individuelles:

- Que la séance se déroule dans un lieu spécialement aménagé, dans un cabinet;
- Que la chambre assure intimité et sécurité;
- Que le conseillé et le conseiller aient une position commode, qui leur permet le contact visuel direct;
- La ponctualité.

La séance de conseil de groupe – les membres du groupe doivent être du même âge. On respecte les conditions ambiantes de la séance individuelle, à la condition qu'il faut assurer le contact visuel entre tous les membres. Pour faciliter les interactions et les communications de groupe et de la communication entre les élèves on recommande à utiliser les exercices de faciliter ou de „ briser la glace”.

Règles dans le conseil de groupe:

- On peut utiliser des techniques de relâche;
- Les thèmes proposés peuvent être offerts par le conseiller ou par le groupe;
- Le nombre des séances peuvent être variables en fonction des problèmes abordés, la composante du groupe et sa décision;
- Le conseiller présente au commencement de la séance le thème et les objectifs suivies;
- Les objectifs se négocient avec le groupe;
- La durée de la séance est entre 60-120 minutes;
- La ponctualité doit être norme unanime acceptée.

Le spécifique de la première séance consiste en:

- De réaliser une meilleure connaissance interpersonnelle tant des membres entre eux mais des membres avec le conseiller aussi- on utilise des exercices de auto présentation;
- Etablir en commun accord les règles après lesquelles le groupe va fonctionner (la ponctualité, le respect réciproque, respecter la variété des opinions).

Les compétences du professeur-conseiller

Qui sont à la base d'une bonne interaction avec le groupe

Le spécifique des activités de conseil pour la carrière est de les centrer sur l'auto connaissance et développement personnelle des élèves. Pour réaliser cet objectif, il est nécessaire d'assurer une atmosphère positive, où les élèves/les clients puissent bénéficier après les interactions avec les collègues. Le conseiller, par le comportement personnel, peut modeler les attitudes suivantes :

- **L'acceptation inconditionnellement** – l'attitude de reconnaître la dignité et la valeur personnelle des élèves, avec les points faibles et forts, qualités et défauts, attitudes positives et négatives, sans critique, juger, contrôler et surtout conditionner leur appréciation de réaliser certains comportement. L'acceptation inconditionnellement n'est pas équivalente avec l'approbation de tout attitude ou de tout comportement, mais suppose l'acceptation de la manière différente où la personne sent ou croit.

- **L'Empathie** – l'habileté de comprendre la manière dans laquelle une autre personne pense, sent et se comporte. L'empathie ne doit pas être confondue avec le pitié ou la compassion vers une autre personne en difficulté, mais c'est de voir les choses de la

perspective de cette personne, attitude qui facilite l'expressions des émotions, croyances, valeurs et enrichit la communication.

- **La congruence** – représente la concordance entre le comportement et les croyances, les émotions et les valeurs personnelles. Le décalage entre ce qu'une personne sent ou pense et ce qu'elle exprime se transpose dans la manière fautive de s'exprimer ou de comportement, qui est facilement saisissable par les autres et peut mener à perdre la relation de confiance.

- **La collaboration** – suppose à impliquer le groupe dans les décisions de développement personnel dans une relation de respect et de partenariat, également. Le rôle des interactions de groupe est de faciliter l'identification des plus importantes informations pour que l'élève puisse prendre des décisions responsables et non pas offrir des solutions, dans des certaines relations de type expert-débutant.

- **La pensée positive** – implique la vision positive sur le potentiel de développement personnel et d'encourager le respect de soi des élèves.

Les habiletés que le conseiller peut les utiliser pour créer un milieu sécurisant pour le groupe des élèves sont:

- **L'écoute active** – est représenté par la capacité de se concentrer en même temps sur le contenu du message et sur les émotions de l'interlocuteur pour assurer une compréhension plus propre du message qu'il transmet. L'écoute active encourage la communication ouverte. Elle exprime respect pour ce que l'interlocuteur pense ou sent et communique par le langage non verbal qu'il est compris. L'écoute active est soutenue par:

- La communication non verbale approprié au contenu et à l'état affective de l'interlocuteur;
- Le contact visuel avec l'interlocuteur, sans le fixer avec le regard;
- L'écoute de l'interlocuteur et la manque de la préoccupation excessive pour les réponses qui vont être données;
- L'écoute authentique, intéressée du problème abordé;
- La manque des évaluations dans des termes de bien ou mal, acceptable ou non acceptables, conforme ou non conforme, intéressant ou non intéressant;
- L'analyse de tous les informations et non pas de celles qui se chevauchement sur les intérêts et les convictions personnelles;
- la manque de l'étiquetage (l'intégration de l'interlocuteur dans une catégorie);

- **L'utilisation constructive des questions** – la capacité de utiliser les questions pour aider les élèves de clarifier leurs sentiments, croyances, compétences et leurs valeurs personnelles. Ainsi on peut utiliser les types suivants des questions:

- les questions ouvertes, qui communique à l'interlocuteur qu'il est écouté et facilite le processus de communication par l'invitation de décrire la situation;

- les questions hypothétiques, qui sont utiles pour visualiser les conséquences positives ou négatives des certaines actions et pour prendre en considération les certaines alternatives différents d'action;

- les questions fermes sont les questions qui génèrent des réponses dans des termes „oui” ou „non”;

- les questions justificatives font les interrogés de trouver des explications logiques ou des excuses pour un comportement et c'est pour ça qu'elles sont contre productives par rapport à l'objectif de développement personnel et sont inutiles dans ce contexte.

- **L'offre d'un feed - back dans une manière:**

- constructive, concentrée sur des aspects qui peuvent être développées;
- spécifique et concret – viser un comportement spécifique et qu'il soit exprimé vague et général;
- descriptif et non évaluatif – de décrire le comportement et de n'exprimer pas l'acceptation ou sa valeur;
- immédiatement, pour le renforcement du comportement et pas après une période de temps;

- **L'alimentation interactive des informations** – en fonction de la clairesse des informations que les élèves possèdent, le conseiller peut offrir ou peut initier des actions d'information conduisant à clarifier et à compléter les existants. On met l'accent pas sur l'évaluation des connaissances, mais sur la manière interactive de donner des informations, que l'élève peut les utiliser puis pour prendre des décisions responsables.

- **La paraphrase** – l'habileté de reformuler ce qui semble essentiel dans le message et de communiquer la compréhension du message
- **L'essentialité** – la modalité d'extraire les plus importants aspects du message.

L'essentialité peut s'utiliser pour:

- Finir une discussion et commencer une nouvelle étape de la discussion;
- Pour établir des priorités et des alternatives d'approche d'un thème;
- De clarifier les perspectives énoncées par les élèves.

- **La réflexion**, comme modalité d'exprimer la compréhension aussi du texte informationnel que de l'état émotionnelle transmise par l'élève. Quelquefois c'est plus relevant la réflexion des émotions que du contenu. La réflexion donne à l'élève le sentiment qu'il est écouté et que ce qu'il exprime ou vive est important.

La séance de conseil à distance

Le conseil à distance – Rosenfield (1997) définit le conseil par téléphone comme un service par lequel un conseiller préparé pour ça travail avec un client ou un groupe des clients, par téléphone, pour permettre au client/clients d'explorer leur état, leurs problèmes ou les crises personnelles dans une seule session ou dans une relation thérapeutique à la long ou continuelle. Le sollicitant établie quoi et combien il veut dire. Le conseiller aide le sollicitant de trouver une solution de son problème ou d'arriver à une décision. Le conseil à distance se réalise par l'intermède du téléphone mais aussi par l'intermède de l'internet: e-mail, des portales ou des chats.

Les avantages du conseil à distance:

- Quiconque peut avoir accès aux informations et aux services en même temps;
- L'anonymat du client, supprime les inhibitions;
- Le client peut interrompre la séance de conseil ou la session à tout moment

Le désavantage principal dans ce type de conseil consiste dans le fait que ce type de communication est limité parce que les partenaires de conversation n'ont pas des indices non verbaux qui aide qualitativement le conseil.

Techniques et méthodes utilisées dans le conseil à distance

Les conseillers peuvent réaliser le conseil à distance en appliquant les techniques suivantes (Ertelt și Schulz, 1997):

L'encouragement minimale – le conseiller doit utiliser des signaux moins genants, comme réaction à ce que le client dit.

La paraphrase – la clarification par répétition ou re affirmation du contenu de ce que le client dit. Par son attention selective, le conseiller met en lumière le contenu objectif des déclarations du client, en leur donnant une plus grande clarté.

La réflexion des sentiments du client – est liée de l'expression de l'empathie et de l'attention aux besoins du client. Ceci comprend la qualification de l'état émotionnel du client, en lui montrant attention et en lui s'adressant directement sur le nom ou en utilisant le pronom „vous”. Cette technique est spécialement efficace pour conférer la confiance et de démontrer l'engagement dans le conseil à la distance.

Le résumé non interprétatif – ou le renforcement des affirmations ou des comportements du client est utilisé dans la tentative de configurer une image compréhensive des sentiments et des expériences du client. Le conseiller met en lumière, en rétrospective, le contenu important d'une certaine partie de la conversation. Ce contenu est puis confirmé ou rejeté par la réaction du client.

La méthode de l'information structurée (méthode intégrative cognitive-affective)
- **MIS** – développée par Ertelt et Schulz (1997) est une approche éclectique, en donnant les mêmes valeurs à ce qui diffère. Ceci intègre le conseil et les théories de choix de la carrière et se base sur le modèle de prise des décisions avancé par Janis et Mann (1977) :

1. L'évaluation complète des alternatives.
2. La clarification des conséquences positives et négatives de chaque alternative.
3. Chercher des nouvelles informations, importantes, pour l'évaluation par la suite des alternatives
4. La collection et la prise en considération, sans partialité, des nouvelles informations et des opinions des experts.
5. Le ré évaluation conséquences de toutes les alternatives, même de celles considérées initialement inacceptables.
6. La planification de l'implémentation des alternatives préférées, en accordant attention spéciale aux risques supposées.

MIS prend en considération des situations typiques à beaucoup de services de conseil (par exemple, le personnel insuffisant) et les conséquences de ce fait, comme le temps limité, la fréquence réduite des contacts, la pression des clients de résoudre un problème et les grandes attentes du conseiller en ce concerne le diagnostique, l'expertise professionnelle et la place de travail,

Les clients ont besoin des informations: **factuelles** concernant les alternatives, la probabilité du succès de celles ci et les récompenses qu'ils peuvent attendre; **évaluatives**, comme sont les critères basées sur les propres intérêts, préférences, aptitudes et conditions du

milieu internalisées; **prescriptives**, informations qui leur dit quoi et combien des informations factuelles et évaluatives peuvent combiner et en quelle manière.

Le conseil dans la carrière est une composante de base des services d'informations, conseil et orientation qui ont le rôle de soutenir l'intégration socioprofessionnelle de la population de toute âge, par des processus d'apprendre et de conseil continu. Beaucoup de temps, en matière d'évaluation et d'examinations psychologique pour le conseil dans la carrière ou pour l'orientation scolaire et professionnelle, dans le sens le plus étroite, les aptitudes et les traits de personnalité ont été considérés décisives.

Des recherches récentes attentionnent sur le fait que les hommes sont des êtres avec des comportements occupationnelles complexes, qui ont des expériences de vie uniques, un fond héréditaire irréparable, valeurs, aspirations et attitudes cristallisées dans des contextes différents de leur existence, que dans la vie socioprofessionnelle accomplissent simultanément ou successivement des divers rôles, d'autres que ceux liés de l'occupation ou de profession. Ainsi, l'évaluation et l'examinations psychologique devra tenir compte de l'influence des autres aspects comme la famille, le contexte éducationnel, la communauté, la manière de passer le temps libre, les hobbies, fonctions publiques assumées volontairement ou des autres rôles qu'on a eus le long de la vie, dans le conseil et dans le développement dans la carrière.

Herr et Cramer (1996) font une classification des types d'examinations réalisés pour conseiller dans la carrière en fonction des finalités de ce processus. Ils identifient des examinations avec finalité:

- Discriminative;
- Prédictive;
- De monitoires;
- Evaluative proprement-dite.

Chacun d'entre ces formes d'examinations est importante et utile, dans des situations diverses, pour aider l'individu dans le processus de auto connaissance, information, conseil et orientation:

- L'examination discriminative va aspirer spécialement vers le jugement des qualités et des performances des individus en relation avec des certains intérêts, valeurs et préférences pour certaines occupations et combien sont ils compatibles avec certains milieux de travail où on pratique ces occupations.
- L'examination prédictive va faciliter l'anticipation en ce qui concerne le potentiel des clients dans le plan des effets de l'éducation, de la formation et du travail, dans celui de la mobilité occupationnelle, sur l'échelle des positions sociaux ou les performances possibles qu'on peut les atteindre.
- L'examination faite pour contrôler offre des informations sur l'état de préparation des clients pour faire des choix dans le plan du développement dans la carrière, sur la qualité des décisions et la direction des opinions concernant le travail; ici sont impliqués des variables cristallisés ou en cours de stabilisation de nature cognitive et morale- attitudinale.
- L'examination faite pour évaluer les interventions dans la direction de conseil dans la carrière vise le mesurage du niveau atteint dans la réalisation des objectifs du conseil et orientation dans la carrière. On tient compte des résultats des programmes divers qui agissent dans le domaine du conseil et d'orientation dans la carrière, les effets des

stratégies et des projets d'action dans le domaine de l'information, du conseil et d'orientation, au niveau individuel, institutionnel et social.

Conclusions

Les éléments de base d'un système cohérent suppose l'existence des certaines ressources humaines bien préparés dans ce domaine, des certaines réseaux institutionnelles des services d'informations, conseil et orientation, d'un code étiqque et des certaines standards de qualité de l'activité pratique, ainsi que un ensemble des méthodes de travail pour les populations cibles visées de ces services. Une telle perspective impose un ré conceptualisation, ré systématisation et réconciliation entre classique et moderne dans le domaine de la méthodologie spécifique au conseil en fonction des critères de plus en plus étendues et des domaines plus divers.

La compétence des conseillers dans le domaine de l'évaluation est une de base, à cote des compétences dans le domaine de la communication de tout types et de tout niveau, le conseil individuel, de groupe, l'implémentation des programmes pour le développement dans la carrière, le management des informations, aussi que l'utilisation des ressources des technologies informatiques et de communication dans le conseil.

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CAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION DRIVE THE STUDENTS’ ENTREPRENEURIAL SPIRIT OF DEVELOPMENT?

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Abstract: Self-awareness and self-confidence are the entrepreneurial attitudes which constitute the basis for all other aspects of entrepreneurship. They entail discovering and trusting in one's own abilities which then allow individuals to turn their creative ideas into action. Taking the initiative and risk taking, critical thinking, creativity and problem solving are also fundamental, but they are also specific attributes of an ‘enterprising self’. Studies show that students need to find out above all whether entrepreneurial activity suits them, whether they have sufficiently high entrepreneurial aptitude to become entrepreneurs. Depending on what they learn students may assess and adjust their entrepreneurial intentions and aptitude. In our survey-based study we try to find out how students from different specializations define themselves in terms of entrepreneurship, if they have an entrepreneurial spirit or not.

Keywords: entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial aptitude, qualities, attitudes, students

Introduction

One of the most important roles of education is to promote entrepreneurial behaviours and attitudes, as the development of employees’ entrepreneurial thinking can contribute to the positive growth of different economic indicators. In the present context we need to stimulate the entrepreneurial mindsets of young people, foster innovative business start-ups, and encourage a culture that supports entrepreneurship and the growth of SMEs, as European Commission’s documents suggested.

According to the Key Competence Framework entrepreneurship is an individual’s ability to turn ideas into action. As it is a key competence for all people, education can help young people be more creative and self confident in whatever they undertake.

As attitudes and cultural references take shape at an early age, education can play a major part in successfully addressing the entrepreneurial challenge. Education should therefore develop awareness of entrepreneurship from an early age.

Entrepreneurship education is more than thinking about how many new firms, businesses were built up by the people who participated in a training course. Entrepreneurship education across all ages can stimulate personal attributes and improve horizontal skills such as creativity, initiative, and can also promote innovation, self-confidence and the full potential of all individuals. Entrepreneurship is a skill that is also useful in both personal and social aspects of everyday life.

Acs (2008) points out that raising entrepreneurial competence is a main policy issue for governments seeking growth outcomes. The OECD (2011) report on skills for innovation and research suggests that government policy needs to pay more attention to the skill development and the flexibility of those in academic careers. Furthermore it claims that a broad range of skills, including ‘soft skills’, will become an increasingly important contribution to innovation in a nation. The OECD report also argues that entrepreneurial skills and capabilities are an essential element for an innovation system but acknowledges that there is no strong evidence that correlates entrepreneurship education with any subsequent

performance. Shane (2008) also emphasizes that education for would-be entrepreneurs needs to be aimed at making them more successful in their activity rather than just be encouraging of their decision to start a business.

Public schools are often bureaucratic, resistant to change, and they tend to stifle innovation. Public school administrators who are not in competition for students against other schools have a much weaker incentive to care about their school's competitive position, and about trying new risky ideas that might not work. A child going to school everyday in an environment of competition and innovation has an advantage in learning these entrepreneurial principles and applying them to their personal life after graduation.

Teachers and school administrators are role models for students. Almquist and Angrist (1971) have defined role models as people who do more than just provide technical information. The authors claim that role models set norms and values and orient behaviours on a certain course. Teachers are observed by students on a daily basis and are arguably one of the most important role models student have. So, students are more likely to take risks and become entrepreneurs themselves after observing their teachers in the risk-taking, business-like environment that school can create. Introducing young people to entrepreneurship develops their initiative and helps them to be more creative and self-confident in whatever they undertake and to act in a socially responsible way.

Entrepreneurial characteristics

Studies on entrepreneurship have a central notion, respectively that entrepreneurs are different (Brenner 1987). Brockhaus (1982) identifies three attributes consistently associated with entrepreneurial behaviour: need for achievement, internal locus of control, and a risk-taking propensity. Sexton and Bowman (1985) conclude that entrepreneurs need autonomy, independence, and dominance. Chell et al. (1991) associate entrepreneurs with traits such as being opportunistic, innovative, creative, imaginative, restless, and proactive, and perceive them as agents of change.

Thomas and Mueller (2000) find similar personality characteristics as Brockhaus (1982). In an attempt to summarize the personality trait literature, Cromie (2000) concludes there are (at least) seven characteristics distinguishing entrepreneurs or business owners from non-entrepreneurs. Although the differences are not equally strong for all groups of non-entrepreneurs (e.g. he found that managers or university professors score equally high on some of the seven dimensions), he lists the following seven.

First is the 'Need for achievement' (McClelland 1961). This reflects a person's need to strive hard to attain success. According to Cromie (2000), 'high achievers set demanding targets for themselves and are proactive and bold in setting about accomplishing objectives' (Cromie 2000, p. 16). Second is locus of control (Rotter 1966; Brockhaus 1982). This depicts the extent to which an individual feels in charge. It reflects the extent to which people feel that luck and fate do not determine what happens to them; in other words, they feel they control the environment by the actions they take, and do not respond to some third party.

The third aspect Cromie (2000) mentions is risk taking. Despite the complexity of the concept of risk, entrepreneurs are generally considered to have a greater propensity to take risks. The fourth characteristic is creativity. Enterprising individuals develop new ideas, spot market opportunities and recombine existing inputs in order to create added value

(Leibenstein 1968). Finally, there is the need for autonomy, tolerance for ambiguity, and self confidence. Need for autonomy refers to the ability and will to be self-directed in the pursuit of opportunities (Lumpkin and Dess 1996). Tolerance for ambiguity is related to the uncertainty inherent in entrepreneurial action (see also Wennekers et al. 2007).

Entrepreneurs are associated with the ability to deal effectively with situations or information that are vague, incomplete, unstructured, uncertain or unclear, without experiencing psychological discomfort (Scheré 1982). Self confidence, finally, is related to self-efficacy (Chen et al. 1998), which can be defined as an individual's cognitive estimate of his 'capabilities' to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise control over events in their lives (Wood and Bandura 1989).

Self-awareness and self-confidence are the entrepreneurial attitudes which constitute the basis for all other aspects of entrepreneurship. They entail discovering and trusting in one's own abilities which then allow individuals to turn their creative ideas into action. Taking the initiative and risk taking, critical thinking, creativity and problem solving are also fundamental, but they are also specific attributes of an 'enterprising self'. Studies show that students need to find out above all whether entrepreneurial activity suits them, whether they have sufficiently high entrepreneurial aptitude to become entrepreneurs. Depending on what they learn students may assess and adjust their entrepreneurial intentions and aptitude. In our survey-based study we try to find out how students from different specializations define themselves in terms of entrepreneurship, if they have an entrepreneurial spirit or not.

Methodology

Sample. We used as statistical survey method *random sampling*, respectively **stratified random survey**. According to C.A. Moser, regarding the selection of the layering factors (the closest linked to the research subject), we chose as the *layers* of the survey the *specializations* attended by full-time students, respectively **Business Administration, Commerce, tourism and services economy, Public Administration, Accounting, Finance and banking, Human resources management and Business Administration (master courses)**.

The sample structure on age and sex is illustrated in Table 1.

		How old are you?				Total
		less than 20 years of age	20- 24 years	25 -29 years	more than 29 years	
Sex	masculine	5	20	0	0	25
	feminine	21	49	4	1	75
Total		26	69	4	1	100

Table 1

Questionnaire. In our study we used a quantitative method – a questionnaire with 19 questions, excepting the identification questions (5). It contains only closed questions. We use in the questionnaire a measurement method: the respondents have either to rank a set of values or to choose one value/item at the expense of another in a forced choice format.

Procedure. The questionnaire was developed in Romanian and self-administered and it took approximately 15 minutes on average to complete.

Research results

In order to find out how students from different specializations define themselves in terms of entrepreneurship, we used a set of 19 questions.

Regarding ***What do you consider necessary for a successful business?*** -“An MBA to a European university would be useful.”, using 5-points Likert-type rating scales, it obtained a score of 1.97, indicating that the subjects agree very much with this statement: “total agreement” – 25%, “agreement” – 56 %, “indifferent” – 16 % and only 3 % of them chose “disagreement” and “total disagreement”.

As for ***What do you consider necessary for a successful business?*** -“An MBA to an American university would be useful.”, using 5-points Likert-type rating scales, it obtained a score of 2.33, indicating that the subjects agree with this statement, the percentage for each option being as follows: “total agreement” – 14 %, “agreement” – 47 %, “indifferent” – 31 % and 8 % of the students selected “disagreement”.

To the question: ***What do you consider necessary for a successful business?*** -“An MBA to a Romanian university would be useful”, using 5-points Likert-type rating scales, it obtained a score of 2.26, indicating that the subjects agree with this statement, but we have to consider also that there is a greater number of students in disagreement with this statement. The options are: “total agreement” – 19 %, “agreement” – 60 %, “indifferent” – 22 % and 11 % choosing “disagreement” and “total disagreement”.

As to the question: ***The knowledge acquired during faculty period is sufficient to start up a successful business?***, using 5-points Likert-type rating scales, it obtained a score of 2.84 which indicates that the respondents agree with this statement, the percentage for each option being: “total agreement” – 4 %, “agreement” – 42 %, “indifferent” – 23 %, “disagreement”- 28%, “total disagreement” – 3 %. If we compare these results with a previous carried out survey on only two specializations (Business Administration and Commerce, Tourism and Services Economy) we can notice that there are differences. In the previous study the students considered that the knowledge acquired during faculty in not sufficient to start up a successful business (45% of them disagreed with this statement, and only 13% didn’t decide on that, compared to 23% in the present survey).

Regarding ***Do you think there is a difference between an entrepreneur and a manager?***, from the total number of subjects, 87.9 % selected “yes” and only 12.1 % - “no”.

To the question: ***Do you think it is necessary the academic education include some entrepreneurial aspects or courses?***, from the total number of respondents, 84 % answered “yes”, only 5 % - “no” and 11 % - “I don’t know”.

Asked if ***There are courses (or courses components) in the university curricula that can be considered forms of entrepreneurship education?*** 66 % of the total number of students answered “yes” and 34 % of them - “no”. Comparing the present results with the previously carried out survey, we noticed that 73 % of the total number of students considered that there are courses or at least components in the university curricula that can be considered forms of entrepreneurship education, so the number of students answering positively decreased in the present study.

Regarding the question: **Would you participate in a module of entrepreneurship education?**, from the total number of respondents the majority, respectively 78 %, selected “yes” and 22 % of them - “no”, the number of students not wanting to taking an entrepreneurship course being higher now than in the previous survey with 2 percents.

As to the question **How do you consider the courses included in the entrepreneurship education module should look like?**, from the total number of students only 5 % of them chose “They should include mostly theoretical aspects, as detailed as possible”, the majority, respectively 95 %, selected “They should include mostly case studies and practical examples”.

For the following question: **After graduation from university do you intend to pursue master courses?**, 82 % of the total number of subjects answered positively and 18 % of them answered negatively, the number of students not intending to pursue a master course being much higher compared to only 3% of the respondents answering negatively in the previously carried out survey.

Considering the most important qualities which children can be encouraged to learn at home, the respondents regard them as follows: good manners, feeling of responsibility, tolerance and respect for other people, thrift, saving money and things (the results are illustrated in Figure 1.). It is very interesting that the questioned stuents considered “good manners” and “tolerance and respect for other people” as being more important than “determination and perseverance”, and this means that the relationships between people are more important for them than anything else. Qualities such as “imagination”, “hard work” scored lower than 50% and the students prize “thrift” more than “independence”, the results pointing out that they are more employed oriented than self-employed.

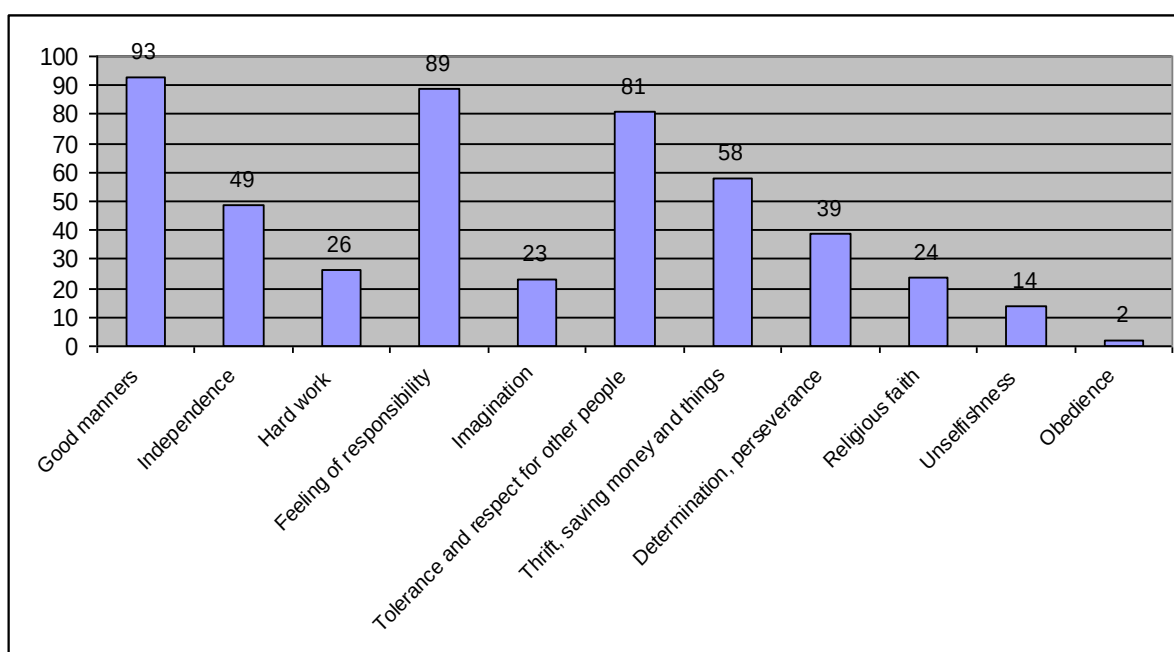


Figure 1. Qualities that children can be encouraged to learn at home

To the question: *If you had started up a business, it would be...*, 84% of the students answered that they would choose a *personal idea*, 6% of the subjects selected a *franchise* and 10% of them considered that they *would continue the family business*.

Asked *What do you need in order to start up a business?*, the students (50%) ranked *financial resources* as the most important element, followed by *relationships* (25%), only a few considered a *new and daring idea* (7%) and *solid technical knowledge* (18%) important, so “relationships” are still important for them even though a new and daring idea could be the most important starting point for a new business.

Concerning *ranking the characteristics of a successful entrepreneur according to their importance (1- the most important, 8 – the least important)*, the results, taking into considerations only the first scale (*1- the most important*), are illustrated in the figure below (Figure 2)

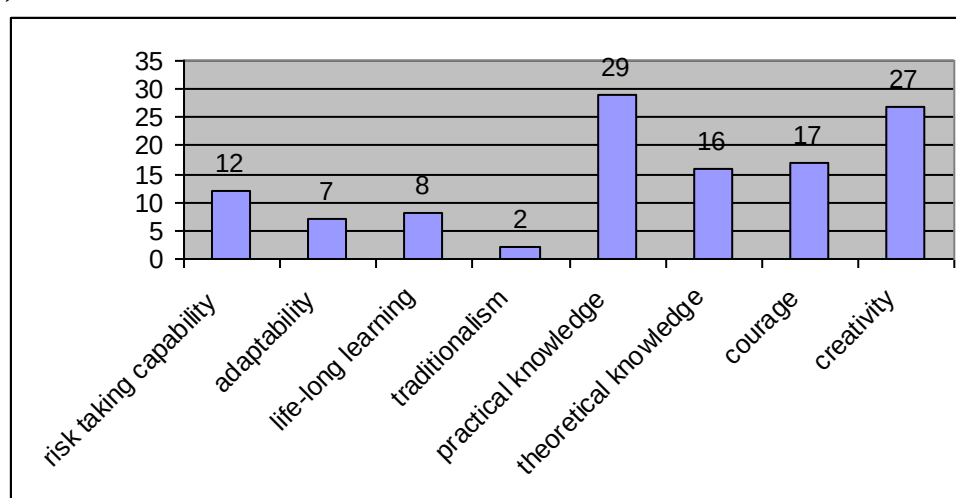


Figure 2. Characteristics of a successful entrepreneur

It is interesting to notice that “Risks taking capability” and “adaptability” are less important for students in terms of starting up a new business compared to “theoretical knowledge”, the results underlying the fact that the students’ entrepreneurial spirit is not so developed. They prize the most “practical experience” and “creativity” which are important when setting up a new business but as well when working in a company. Based on a crosstabulation, 42.85% of the students attending “accounting” specialization considered “practical experience” as being the most important quality for a successful business, followed by those attending “commerce, tourism and services economy”.

Comparing these results with those collected from a previously carried out research, we noticed big differences. The students from two specializations (Business Administration and Commerce, Tourism and Services Economy) considered as the most important qualities “creativity” (22.6%), “courage” (19%) and “theoretical knowledge” (19%). There are differences also related to “life-long learning” as the former students didn’t considered it important (5.1%), but in the present research the respondents started to think about it as being important (8%).

To the next question: *Have you ever done a business plan?*, 44% of the students answered “No”, 25% of them being in the first year of study, based on a crosstabulation.

But to the following question: *If you had started up a business, would you do a business plan?*, 94 % of the students answered “Yes”, so they understand the meaning and importance of a business plan in starting up a business.

Asked *Do you know about the existence of “business angels”?* only 13 % of the students answered “Yes”, 53% of those answering “no” are in the first year of study, and this fact points out a deficiency regarding students’ entrepreneurial spirit and the fact that the entrepreneurial education should start earlier, not at the academic level.

And the fact that 69% of the subjects *intend to start up a personal business after graduation from university* means that at least they have the thought of doing something new and daring.

Conclusions

Regarding the students’ entrepreneurial spirit, we can conclude that students have some knowledge about entrepreneurship, but they still regard it in the traditional way, thinking that they need mostly “financial resources” in starting up a business not knowing about the existence of “business angels”. They consider also that “adaptability” and “life-long learning” are not so important for a successful entrepreneur.

All these facts make us believe that there is a need to improve the university curricula, developing in this way the entrepreneurship education within higher education institutions, but it should be developed in such a way to attract students as only 78% of them would participate in a module of entrepreneurship education. The fact that 46% of the students considered that *the knowledge acquired during faculty period is sufficient to start up a successful business* and 23% are indifferent make us believe that the students do not know much about setting up a business and what is all about.

Regarding the courses included in this module of entrepreneurship education, 95% of the students considered that *they should include mostly case studies and practical examples*, so they need tools in order to know how to start up a business.

Only 82% of the respondents answered positively to master education after graduation from university, the differences between the specializations being that more students from “Accounting” specialization would not like to pursue a master course.

All these results point out the students’ need to develop their entrepreneurial abilities and the necessity to develop the university curricula in such a way to attract more students towards entrepreneurship.

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CHANGE AND INNOVATION IN ROMANIAN TERTIARY EDUCATION: THE CASE OF ELT

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Abstract: Despite numerous reforms the least flexible and the most resistant to change sector of the Romanian education is tertiary education. And what is more, the most renowned and traditional universities are the most affected by resistance to change and seek to preserve their status quo. To illustrate this claim, we will discuss some findings obtained via ethnographic direct observation and document analysis as well as interviews conducted among emeritus professors of the Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, the West University of Timișoara.

Keywords: ethnography, legacy, reform, tertiary education.

In this case study we put forth an ethnographic analysis of the current situation of tertiary education in Romania. We take the following view on ethnography:

Ethnographic research allows researchers to explore how people create, sustain, change, and pass on their shared values, beliefs, and behavior – in essence, their culture. (Heigham and Sakui 2009: 93)

More than that, our case study is doubly ethnographic in nature since its authors are also insiders to the system under scrutiny (and not just the respondents). In other words, the researchers are experienced members of the academic staff of the faculty which hosts the case study, while the interviewees whose opinions are included in the study used to teach in the faculty hosting the case study, both during the communist regime and in the post-communist era. First we will deal the authors' perspective and then we will summarise the findings produced by the analysis of the respondent interviews.

Some general observations

Tertiary education in Romania is relatively young, especially when compared to those of other European countries and its becoming was shaped by several important factors: the emergence of Romania as a unitary state in the 19th century, World War II, the Iron Curtain, the fall of the Berlin wall followed by the December 1989 Romanian uprising. In the 19th century after the national state of Romania was born, following the Union between Moldavia and Țara Românească, in 1859, and one of the most important reform, educationwise, was that of the orthographic system in 1862 which allowed for the birth of a unitary education system throughout the newly born state. The father of the Romanian modern education system is Spiru Haret, the minister of education who, in the 1880s created and implemented an ambitious reform for the modernization of education. The first two universities in Romanian were founded: *Universitatea din Iași* in 1860 and *Universitatea din București* in 1864. Most Romanian scholars believe that the modern education system developed into its modern, Europeanized form within a century from the second half of the 19th century to the second half of the 20th century. In this line of thought, Toma, 2008 observes:

Romania is a country in which the educational system was consolidated between 1862 and World War I on the basis of a well formulated legislation. It is, though, the period between the two world wars that marked the creation of a modern system of education, mostly inspired by those of France and Italy. It was well balanced and democratic and it opened a way to many young people of humble origin and enabled them to become outstanding representatives of the Romanian culture and social life. (<http://www.romanialibera.ro/cultura/aldine/60-de-ani-de-la-reforma-invatamanului-134099.html>, original Romanian, personal translation)

In a similar line of thought, Dragnea, 2011

(<http://www.istoria-romanilor.com/modernizarea-invatamanului-romanesc-sec-al-xix-lea/2011/09/15>) notes:

...the 1912 Law of Superior (tertiary) Education stipulated an increased autonomy of Romanian universities, the rights of university leadership, the organization of diplomas awarding, as well the organization of the students' university life. (Original Romanian, personal translation.)

The post War World II, mid to late 20th century period was subject to many changes and these can be roughly divided into three smaller periods each accompanied by its own reform. The first reform was that of 1948/1949 which laid the foundation of an educational system which was a copycat of the Soviet, USSR's one. It was an unfortunate period because it meant the expulsion of many students who have started their studies before the Soviet invasion of Romania. According to Soviet policies and philosophies only those of 'sound' origins (i.e. working class or peasants, without any 'fortune' be it land, houses or private businesses) deserved and were worthy of superior education. The rest were deemed as bourgeoisie and responsible for the creation and sustaining of an unjust discriminatory state. The empowerment of half illiterate and illiterate working class representatives lead to hard-to-imagine aberrations. Along with the expulsion of innocent and most often than not hard working, intellectually endowed students, on grounds of their origins, many renowned, highly respected academics were also expelled from universities, some being sent directly to prison. Besides this unjust decapitation of the Romanian elite, the 1949 reform brought about the complete change of the curriculum which had to be approved by Soviet officials. The long term consequences of this 'reform' can still be traced today. For example, Toma (2008, <http://www.romanialibera.ro/cultura/aldine/60-de-ani-de-la-reforma-invatamanului-134099.html>) argues that the 1948 was:

... just the beginning of the putting into practice of communist ideologies in education a basic initial intention which has not changed along the way and which visibly marked the way of thinking of the subsequent generations. (Original Romanian, personal translation.)

The second, 1958, educational reform took place subsequent to the demise of Iosif Vissarionovici Stalin, (the absolutist ruthless leader of USSR) and the 1956 student revolt. This reform brought forth a certain liberalization of education. Thus many previously forbidden canonical scientists and writers of Romanian and non Romanian origins were re-introduced for study in the school and university curricula. The Romanian leader, Nicolae

Ceaușescu, was highly appreciated among Western leaders for moving away from the tentacles of the Soviet Union and the education system started to enjoy a breath of fresh democratic air. Unfortunately, this breathing space too soon expired, following Ceaușescu's visit to China and North Korea. The ample, sumptuous, well directed and highly disciplined shows displayed during his visits deeply marked the Romanian leader and sparked a change in his personality. He became a personality cult addict and having no one around to help him get a grip with reality gradually turned into a monstrous figure who managed to alienate and impoverish his people in order to achieve his sometimes lunatic goals, such as Romania's complete adulation and financial independence. In other words he dreamed of creating an isolated, closed, self sustainable society which he could rule as he pleased. The reform that followed this philosophy took place in 1972. This reform put a stop to the liberalization process initiated by the 1953 reform, bringing about new restrictions. Thus, for the following decades and more prominently in the 1980s the system of education

was shaped by philosophies common to the totalitarian regimes in Central and Eastern Europe: it was highly centralised, totally subordinated to the ideology of the Communist Party, aimed at creating 'a new person' (completely devoted to the Party ideology: ready to renounce family, property, freedom of thought and expression for the country and Party). (Goșa, 2009: 15)

In other words, the teachers were supposed to find a way of introducing ideological elements in their classes, to brainwash their students and work towards the creation of the “new person”, an obedient, standardized robot whose main three roles were to work, reproduce and praise the providential ruler accordingly. (For a vivid illustration of such a person, see footages of North Korean public rallies.)

The tertiary, university system could make no exception to this rule, even though in a less evident way. Apparently, the university life was more autonomous, and less prone to the party propaganda. Nonetheless, university education was as infected by the totalitarian communist regime as any other domain of social life, in a more subdued way but as efficient as anywhere else. A few examples might be worth mentioning to support this claim. For becoming members of the teaching staff university professors not only had to be communist party members but they also needed the approval of the party bureau and the *Securitate* representative in the University. Clean records were at least as important criteria for selection as professional merits, doubled, most often than not, by the right political connection. Just having a relative who chose to flee Romania and live abroad in the “corrupt western” world meant a “stained” record and the impossibility to access a position within the academia.

In a similar way, student life and career prospects were subject to political and ideological pressures. Thus, students with unstained records and good academic results were invited to become communist party members and sometimes were pursued by the *Securitate* to become their informants. Refusal to accept such proposals would automatically trigger the marginalization of the student, to say the least. Moreover, the students who became activists received credits added to their academic marks and these credits were crucial to secure a better job after graduation. But it was more than that, the students who dared to voice their dissatisfactions in any way were immediately tracked down by the *Securitate* and drastic

repercussions followed. A telling case of what the totalitarian regime could do to students is that of the Aktionsgruppe Banat, founded by Swabian students in the 1970s as literary society which fought for the freedom of speech. All the members of this society suffered from various forms of persecution from the *Securitate* (one member, for example, was sentenced to prison for two years). Nobel Prize winner, Herta Müller, who had strong connections with members of this group, speaks extensively about this dark period of communism in Romania and the disreputable role of the *Securitate* in the students' life.

Romania was the only country in the region where the totalitarian communist regime fell as a consequence of a bloody uprising. Despite the fact that more than twenty years have passed since then, post-communist Romania is still marred by the residues and flawed values of the totalitarian era. The transition from one of the most oppressive, closed, totalitarian regimes in the region to an ideological and economic opposite, namely democratic pluralism and market economy was more dramatic and controversial than in any other behind-the-Iron-Curtain country. Due to the loss of many lives in defense of liberty, people expected immediate changes with immediate positive and visible results. The slow pace of changes in all the domains of social life: politics, economy, education or health care have generated a never ending and not very successful a struggle to replace totalitarian engendered values and practices with democratic ones. These continuous unprofessional and often futile attempts caused, (what many politicians, analysts, civil society members, journalists believe) its constant lagging behind, in spite of Romania's official joining the EU in 2007. It is, in other words, the reason why Romania is still seen by many as a marginal country, a second-rated, poor and annoying relative of the richer, more developed EU member countries.

This never ending story of transition was bound to influence the system of education. Even though some of the most evident and detested effects of the communist regime: indoctrination, ideology and excessive manifestations of power and control over persons and institutions were, at least at face value, dropped. Many of Romania's officials spoke of the much needed reforms and innovations and even attempted to implement them. However, the general feeling, often expressed in the media, is that these so-called reforms were and still are implemented in a rather haphazardous manner without much preparation or planning. As Fullan (1995: 4) argues:

Neglect of the phenomenology of change - that is, how people actually experience change as distinct from how it might have been intended - is at the heart of the spectacular lack of success of most social reforms.

As a consequence, resistance to change was inevitable and the Romanian educational system still suffers from its totalitarian legacy. A book frequently quoted in Romanian studies, editorials or essays is entitled *Romanian Education Today: A Diagnostic Study* and it was edited by Miroiu (1998). One of the reasons why this book is so much quoted is that, to this date, it represents one of the very few pertinent, diagnostic studies of the status of Romanian education. This book paints a grim picture of the system of education in Romania in the late 90's, insisting on the need for change and reform. The following three major characteristics inherited from the communist regime were identified: authoritarianism, hyper-centralisation and conservatism. Unfortunately, a decade later, we still talk about the never

ending reform of the Romanian educational system and the aforementioned characteristics still continue to pose serious obstacles to reform. On the other hand, one needs to acknowledge that large scale national projects, such the school-leaving examination (the *Bacalureat*) reform were indeed implemented with some success.

However, when it comes to tertiary education, due to the more autonomous nature of universities, such large scale projects were hard to put through. If in the pre-1989 totalitarian regime all universities were strictly controlled, highly centralized state universities, in the next period the existing state universities expanded both in the number of students they could take in and in the number of new programmes accredited. Added to that, in the 1990s, a substantial number of private universities were founded to accommodate an increasing demand for higher education (Romania being one of the European states with an incredible low percentage of young people who attended and graduated from universities). Accordingly, much of the university academic personnel got promoted almost overnight, while a number of secondary school teachers became academics. The quality assurance control was difficult under the circumstances and many complained of the poor quality of the teaching staff and of the inappropriacy of the programmes. Older, traditional and renowned universities reacted to this state of affairs and formed a *Consortium* and, to this date, this *Consortium* continues to exist and there still are some diplomas and certificates that are recognized only if they are issued by universities part of this consortium. In later years, due to the demographic decrease, on the one hand, and on their having problems in upholding the law, some of these private universities had to close their gates or, while in some cases the gates were closed on them by the Romanian officials on the grounds that they did not observe the rules.

One big change, a leap forward to the reformists, and a drawback to the traditionalist and euro skeptics, was Romania's signing and becoming part of the Bologna Agreement in 1999. The four-year undergraduate Romanian university system turned into the (in)famous 3 + 2 + 3 (bachelor, master and doctoral programmes). The most beneficial effects brought about by the Bologna Agreement doubled by Romania's joining the EU, was, as far as I am concerned, the Erasmus programme. The teaching staff and student exchanges lead to development. Through this programme, for example, many students got to study in various universities around Europe and thus became acquainted with different practices and types of courses, hence a major shift in their students' expectations when they returned. Consequently a feeling of dissatisfaction seems to sweep the student population in Romania and eventually this is bound to trigger a much needed change, since, in an apparently strange way, the most renowned and traditional universities are the most affected by resistance to change and seek to preserve their status quo. Some of the newly founded universities proved to be more flexible, especially when it comes to reforming to their curricula and to adapting them to the market needs. This might be one of the reasons why they managed to survive the demographic plummet. The aforementioned resistance manifests at several levels: staff policies, research, and academic programmes. We try to explain as follows.

The hierarchical system of the academia and some well ingrained practices make the promotion of an academic quite difficult in state universities. Very often such promotions are not based on meritocracy but are age related, of the type, the oldest in the system gets promoted while the young have to wait for their turn. Consequently, in general, though there have been exceptions, promotion comes with age. Professors tend to be quite "mature", and

what is more, an example of legacy from the previous regimes, before the 2011 Law of Education, one had to become a professor before being granted the right to supervise doctoral theses. Also before the 2011 Law of Education, there was no age limit for those who supervised PhD theses. It is no surprise then, that one of the PhD students' favourite anecdote relates to the many prayers for the good health and long life of their supervisors, at least for the period in which they have to complete and defend their PhDs. The 2011 law stipulates that the maximum retirement age is 65, when it comes to regular teaching and research when, if they choose, professors can become associates and supervise PhDs by the age of 70. When political changes took place in 2013, there was political pressure from senior, more empowered academics and the law was "slightly amended". It now stipulates that the University Senate can decide whether professors remain active longer than the regular retirement age. Also, the 2011 law stipulates that in order for an academic to be granted the right to supervise PhDs, s/he has to go through the process of *habilitation* (like those existing in France, Germany and other European countries). Thus no matter the age or university title, in principle, anyone who has gone through this process can become a PhD supervisor. Unfortunately, gaining this right is not an easy process and young academics are still not sure how this habilitation will function, especially for lower academic titles. Therefore are reluctant to begin procedures, especially since a lot of money is also involved.

The Romanian tertiary education is also plagued by research related problems. The latest plagiarism scandals which affected the Romanian academia, and not only (see the case of a former Minister of Education and the Prime Minister himself), are but the tip of the iceberg. Many of the PhD supervisors themselves have difficulties when it comes to conducting research. The few existing exceptions, most of them connected to natural sciences, especially mathematics, informatics or physics, are the exceptions which, unfortunately, seem to confirm the rule. The worst case can be found in humanities, some of the professors not making the difference between essay writing and research report. What is even more mindboggling is that some professors do not (or at least did not, before the cat was out of the bag) sanction plagiarism, thus encouraging and replicating unethical practices. Only in recent years this situation started to change, especially due to young academics many of whom have studied abroad. Regrettably, those who return to their homeland after finishing their studies are not very many. What is even sadder is that the most brilliant high school students choose to do their university studies elsewhere, particularly because they do not trust the university system of Romania. Brain drain is at its peak these days, whether we talk about high school students and young graduates or professionals (such as doctors). And I truly believe that when it comes to the university choices made by high school student graduates, at least part of the blame lies on the Romanian tertiary education system itself, both when it comes to its study programmes and to the reputation of the professionalism and practices put forward by the teaching staff.

Many of the academic programmes have not changed for a very long time, nor have they been updated to suit the ever more fluid labour market. The studies in the Romanian academia, most often than not, are knowledge based and what the exams test is a students' memorizing capacities. In other words, academics spoon feed their students and they expect them to faithfully regurgitate the contents of the spoons. Added to that, some academics teach the same course all their academic lives, (which in some cases is more than thirty years). Such

courses do not aim to teach what the students need to know in order to help them in their profession, but they aim to teach what the academic knows best. As for the lack of flexibility when it comes to the courses taught, though academics have complete freedom to propose any course they might see fit, they can do so only every five years due to the Romanian bureaucratic system of accreditation. Each study programme's accreditation expires after five years and the national accreditation board is invited to send a commission to re-accredit the programme. This is the only opportunity, one in five years to change the philosophy, name, structure, and basic content of a course. Undoubtedly if an academic really wanted to change something, s/he could do it but to a small extent and by keeping the name of the accredited course. And this is the course name that goes into the diploma supplement, according to the Bologna agreement.

The students that we talked to in our careers, whether informally as tutors or formally, for example in various research focus groups, said that they found many of the courses imposed on them useless and boring. Some mentioned professors who, during lectures, read from their own books, while the students were expected to keep quiet and take notes. But “the icing on the cake” as one of the students put it, was the fact that the students were also supposed to buy the book the teacher was reading from. One of the students went further and stated that not only did he feel that he did not develop in any way, but he felt that he had known more when he started his university studies. He also felt that he was being turned into some kind of a “drilling machine” incapable of thinking autonomously, or of creating something.

One might rightly argue that we take too negative a view and attitude towards our colleagues, and we do want to highlight that we consider that the system is mainly responsible for inertia and teacher centeredness and not individuals. Many of the academics have not been exposed to new pedagogies and teaching methodologies and they simply replicate what they have been subjected to during their studies. Concepts like student oriented teaching or needs analysis have but recently reached some of the academics and, what is more, such concepts are seen as inappropriate for tertiary education. After all, “academics do know what's best for their students, don't they”, and “students are opinionated and disrespectful enough as it is, why encourage them to be more so” are two of the lines we fairly frequently hear uttered by some of our fellow academics. Such opinions might originate in academic self-consciousness (some might simply call it “vanity”) on the one hand, and in the lack of training in pedagogy on the other. Unfortunately no institutionalised teacher trainer or refresher courses are available for tertiary education in the Romania.

In brief, we consider that communist legacy is still present in the tertiary education in Romania while reform is evident only at the level of form, in a rather superficial way. The outcome of university studies is, most often than not, a production of frustrated graduates who have difficulty in finding well paid, suitable jobs. The analysis now moves on to presenting the institution (university and faculty) in which the case study was conducted and then to summarizing the views put forward by the interviews with a number of its emeritus professors.

The case study

The tertiary education institution in which the present study was carried out is currently called *Universitatea de Vest* was founded by the Royal Decree no. 660/December, 30, 1944. This university located in Timișoara was thus authorized to offer study programmes in the fields of law, letters, philosophy, human medicine, veterinary medicine, pharmacy and theology. However, the changes in the regime put an obstacle in the way of making these real. In 1948, when the Education Reform enforced the basic principles of organizing tertiary education in Romania, by Decision no 263327/October, 25, a Pedagogic Institute was founded in Timișoara, destined to function in parallel with the other higher education centers already existing in this town (the Polytechnic Institute, the Medical Institute and the Agronomic Institute). At the time a single faculty was founded within this Pedagogic Institute, Mathematics and Physics, with a three-year duration of study. The purpose of this institute was to train teachers for the western part of the country. In 1953 the duration of studies was extended to four years and in 1956, when the Faculty of Philology was founded, the duration of studies was further extended to five years. Starting with the following year, the director of the institute became *rector*. In 1962 (via the Decision of the Council of Ministers no 999/September, 25) it was stipulated that the status of the institute should be changed to that of a university, that the sections should become distinct faculties, and that the graduating students were to elaborate a diploma paper). Thus the former Institute officially became the University of Timișoara. In the same year 1962, the construction of the new university building commenced. It is interesting, in an anecdotic sort of way, that the decision to attribute to this newly found university a piece of land on the banks of the Bega river, close to the center but still a cornfield, managed to raise a few amused and malicious brows and has been, since then, part of the urban legend of the becoming of the ‘cornfield, rednecks’ Sorbonne’ (as it used to be called) and which is, in fact, the becoming of the first comprehensive university in the western part of Romania. Between 1962 and 1989 the activity of the university was shaped by the numerous ministerial orders and decisions, which stipulated the forms of education, the founding or closing down of faculties, sections and specializations, departments, and disciplines. In 1967 the Faculty of Economics was founded, while in 1968 the request for the foundation of the Faculties of Music, Arts, History – Geography, Sports and Physical Education was granted by the Ministry. These were, nevertheless, closed down after 1976. The university entered the post-communist era having only three faculties: Philology (Letters), Natural Sciences and Economics.

The post 1989 period brought about immediate and substantial changes in the structure of the university through the (re)founding of several faculties: Arts and Design, Physical Education and Sports, Chemistry, Biology and Geography and, later on, Psychology and Sociology, Law, Music and Drama. In 2004 the youngest faculty is founded: the Faculty of Political Sciences, Journalism and Communication Sciences.

The respondents of our study all came from, what is now called, the Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, one of the oldest faculties in the university. Before 1989 it was known as the Faculty of Philology. Once the domains of study diversified in the 1990s, the faculty changed its name according to the domains of study developed under its umbrella. Thus at various points in time, *Letters* was the only constant in various combinations with Philosophy, History, Journalism and Theology. However, some felt that their place of was not with

humanities but with social sciences and decided to join other faculties. The way it is shaped today, our faculty offers BA programmes in:

- Languages and literatures in a double combination of the following: Romanian, English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Serbian and Croat and Latin
- Applied Modern Languages in a double combination of: English, French, German and Spanish
- History
- Pastoral and Didactic Orthodox Theology

BA studies can be continued with MA programmes in: Translation studies (English and French), American studies, Romanian literature, Romanian Language, conceptual history, archeological studies and orthodox theology. The doctoral school of our faculty is considered quite strong and one of the most representative in the university. Applicants can do their PhD studies in Romanian language, literature and cultural studies, English and American Literatures, German literature, Serbian and Croat languages and history.

As far as the interviews-based findings of our study are concerned, they are the result of a project financed by the Soros Foundation Romania, within the program East-East: Partnership Beyond Borders, project entitled *Teaching values by role model examples – A university outreach project for community involvement*. To this end, our faculty has conducted a series of interviews with academics in order to highlight the involvement of the university, via its people, in the every-day life of the local community. The corpus consisted of nine semi-structured interviews of representative members of the cultural and academic community of cities in the regions envisaged by the project (Timisoara, Romania, Szeged, Hungary, and Chişinău, the Republic of Moldova). All the respondents had both an academic and an administrative relevance (as members of the university leadership at a certain point, including a rector, a vice-rector, two deans and several heads of departments). Within the process of analysing these interviews we came across a serendipity pattern: the constant references to pre and post 1989 periods. We decided to re-analyse the interviews produced by the four respondents who came for our faculty, with a different focus in view: their opinions on the becoming of tertiary education across time.

The categories that were identified were: the pre-1989 context (the communist period), the transition period (the 1990s) and the contemporary context (the 2000s). Each of these categories were further divided in subcategories: career, professional relations, and values (referred to as such or reflected in behaviour and practices). The analysis has revealed clear similarities across all respondents.

The pre-1989 context, in the respondents' views was characterized by closure at all levels. Despite the fact that the respondents had an elite education and the chance to study next to elite role models, the closed system in which they were educated, communicated, made friends and professional contacts was claustrophobic. All mentioned the formalism of their entire professional life, especially when it came to communicating with colleagues and students. As a consequence, their relationship with the students was exclusivistic, strictly professional and elitist, generated by the restricted freedom of speech. All respondents referred to the aim of trespassing the ideological and geographical barriers: travelling abroad,

obtaining a scholarship in a foreign university, making efforts to send students or younger colleagues to teach and study in another country. None of the respondents however made any reference to the role of the *Securitate* in their professional life. One major paradox of the communist educational system was also revealed – the fact that, although tertiary education was self-fashioned as a „mass” process, it was far more elitist than other systems, an elitism highly esteemed by all the respondents.

In the 1990s, values and criteria changed, a reality which was usually perceived negatively, whether it referred to the shift from quality to quantity or to the political engagement of education. The first drawback identified by the respondents accuses the bureaucratic approach to excellence, where promotion depended on the number of publications and the sums of money received through grants, criteria which, as one of the respondents put it, would have kept Einstein away from the university and professorship. None of the respondents though made any reference to the criteria according to which an academic's excellence should have been measured. The second aspect is perceived as a sad paradox: while the pre-1989 period was characterized by a formal character and isolation, the post-1989 eagerness to embrace politics threatens to destroy the teaching mission and deteriorate peer and teacher-student relationships. What both hypostases have in common is the inevitable renunciation to quality. Some respondents tried to explain both the vulnerability of the academic system to international pressures and quantitative criteria, and the inability to achieve recognition by means of the dissipation of the previous academic tradition which was seen as having been more appropriate and meaningful. The comparison with prestigious European institutions brought to the surface feelings of dissatisfaction of belonging to relatively small and obscure institutions (in terms of their presence and position in various international rankings). All in all the changes brought about by the new, post-communist era were not seen as a benefice to the tertiary education.

The characterization of the years 2000s may seem surprising as it goes against the general trend of the universities outside the post-communist paradigm, despite the fact that the above-mentioned East European institutions have appropriated Western standards (the Bologna convention, the European Credit Transfer System, memberships in international associations and boards, participation in high profile international events, etc.). This may come as a reaction against the inadequacies these professors might have experienced in the later years of their careers. As most respondents were selected, according to definite age criteria (in order to be able to share a working life long experience), many of them referred to rejection and exclusion, rather than inclusion and opening, references justified by the biographical context: because of the reform in education, the changing laws and the precarious financial circumstances, many of them had to retire. Many respondents looked at this event in negative, punitive terms, referring to their retirement as to the measures of an abusive system (some call the group of people who were invited to retire „the lot”, as if they were convicts). They invariably deplore the gesture as the repression of elites. The discourse the respondents employ, therefore, acquires a cyclical quality: the reference to elites was present in the pre-1989 context while disappearing in the 2000s, therefore the representational role of the institution in the community would disappear along with the disappearance of this “elite” and the values it represented.

The summary of the analysis of the interviews presented above confirms the findings based on observation and document analysis put forward in the first part of this paper, namely that inertia and resistance to change is all-pervading in the Romanian tertiary education. Moreover it appears to be entrenched in the conservative and elitist culture of the academia. The predominant values still replicated in post-1989 Romania are those of elitism and professor-centeredness, while students and young academics are being discouraged to initiate a change to the system. All these lead to the idea that, in spite of the many changes and reforms, it has been subjected to the Romanian tertiary system is more legacy than reform oriented.

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INCLUSION IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF THE CHILDREN FROM THE SHELTERS

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This study is derived from research conducted in Mexico, specifically in the State of Morelos, aims to raise awareness of the educational situation of children who are vulnerable or who are at risk and who are involved in dangerous living conditions result of abuse, violence, abuse and neglect. The study addresses the relevance of an objective analysis of what happens when these children are rescued from the street and even in their homes, and are placed in shelters; is necessary to consider its immediate entry into the national, same educational system that most of the time is alien and unknown. Finally a review of both support and unprotected the education system in Mexico, minors living in this condition, in order to determine the construction process to change their circumstances and improve their education end opportunities that allow them the access is meaningful learning, and they approach a better quality of life expectations.

Keywords: educational systems, vulnerability, violence, shelters, learning.

Este cunoscut faptul ca vulnerabilitatea copiilor aflati în situații de risc ce traiesc în condiții de viață periculoase ori abuz, violență duce din păcate, la neglijarea și prin urmare la schimbarea așteptărilor lor pentru o viață de succes iar viitorul lor este redus drastic, cei mai multi dintre ei nu au oportunitati de a se dezvolta în domeniul emoțional, cu atât mai puțin în educație.

Dar ce se întâmplă când acești copii sunt salvați de pe stradă, sau chiar și din familiile și casele lor și când sistemul de învățământ pentru ei este adesea necunoscut? situația este extrem de complicata, iar marea majoritate nu au fost sprijinți sau încurajați de către părinții lor, nu au fost aduși la școală și, prin urmare, competențele lingvistice și abilitățile motorii, nu au fost stimulate, ceea ce a făcut ca dezvoltarea lor psihologică să fi fost afectata într-un mod foarte important.

Astfel, s-a observat, că majoritatea copiilor au o percepție limitată asupra lor înșiși, sunt utilizați pentru a satisface imediat nevoile altora, dar simt că trebuie să lupte pentru nevoile lor de bază: alimente, îmbrăcăminte, sau pentru afecțiune și astfel se dezvoltă probleme, cum ar fi deficiențe în dezvoltarea fizică, cognitivă și de fixare, care, desigur, afectează foarte mult respectul de sine.

Mamele a multor dintre ei, s-au angajat în cea mai veche meserie din lume: prostituția și mulți dintre ei nu aveau pur și simplu un stil de viață care le-ar permite să obțină o profesie a cărei remunerație să le ofere un stil de viață, care va beneficia de satisfacția minimă și poate aspira la o familie, care, în multe cazuri, a dus la decizia de a se separa de ei, și mai trist este că mulți dintre ei nu reușesc să-i viziteze și îi uita cu anii.

Deci, acești copii au fost privați emoțional, s-a încetinit motivația lor, dorința lor de a învăța și de a excela; în plus, școala nu a fost suficient de atractivă pentru ei, astfel încât performanțele lor academice, în general, este slabă și este foarte limitată; este foarte dificil de a socializa cu colegii lor, și de a exprima ceea ce simt, ceea ce îi doare și ceea ce doresc cu

adevărat, care este motivul pentru care școala pentru ei este o mare provocare trebuie să depășească multe dificultăți.

Marea majoritate nu sunt acceptați încă pentru copii sau adaposturi.. Este atât de greu pentru ei deoarece au nevoie să fie ghidați pas cu pas, pentru a fi încurajați și a le da încredere în a începe să-și construiască un alt drum pe care să-l urmeze, fără teama de a fi excluși.

Mai mult decât atât, copiii care provin din adăposturi și case copii, în cele mai multe cazuri, intră în sistemul de învățământ în grade avansate, acest lucru, cu toate că nu au urmat nicio altă școală anterior, ceea ce este o problemă serioasă pentru ei, deoarece ei nu sunt familiarizați cu orice structură de învățământ sau cu ceea ce reprezintă, de exemplu, reguli de comportament, sau de socializare cu alte persoane, așa cum am menționat mai sus și, atunci când vin la sala de clasă se simt rușinați, pentru că ei cred că abilitățile lor sunt nule, deoarece își dau seama că colegii lor știu mai multe decât ei, și ei au atins deja anumite standarde în timp, astfel încât poate fi foarte frustrant pentru ei

Se înțelege că în școlile federale, astfel de copii formează mult mai multe grupuri, sunt mai numeroase, ceea ce face foarte dificil pentru profesor de a oferi fiecărui copil o atenție deosebită pentru a-l ajuta să progreseze treptat și să fie inclus în grup, ceea ce înseamnă, de asemenea, o problemă pentru acești copii pentru că fără acest sprijin va fi greu să meargă mai departe; sunt adesea forțați să înțeleagă și să rezolve în mod autonom ceea ce ei nu au văzut și trebuie să învețe repede, dacă doresc să fie acceptați în școală.

În Mexic, proiectul recent de reformă educațională, în special la nivel de bază, are în plan construirea de tabere de antrenament și concursuri, avându-se în vedere ca principii directoare: dezvoltarea personală și socială, limbă și comunicare, gândirea matematică, explorare și cunoaștere a lumii, exprimare și de apreciere artistică, dezvoltarea fizică și sănătate (septembrie, 2009, pagina 42.), dar, încă nu s-a reușit până acum să găsească rezultatele necesare educației care la nivel înalt, ce se dorește, în Mexic deoarece, în conformitate cu Institutul National de Evaluarea de învățământ (INEE, 2004), rezultatele testelor naționale acordate celor 48.000 de elevi în clasa a șasea în timpul ciclului 2002-2003, arată că doar 37,2% au obținut un nivel satisfăcător iar la citire și matematică procentul este și mai scăzut (13,4).

Planul este orientat spre dobândirea de competențe de comunicare, de rezolvare a problemelor, gândirea logică, gândirea critică și cultură a legalității (septembrie, 2009) și se intenționează ca elevii să dezvolte aceste abilități de-a lungul pregătirii lor în școală.

Îndeplinirea educației de bază este fundamentală pentru îndeplinirea profilului absolventului, conținută în ultimul nivel educațional. Aceasta implică integrarea în nivelurile preșcolar, primar și secundar ca o modalitate de formare în care coerența între cerințele specifice de cunoștințe, abilități, atitudini și valori, înseamnă dezvoltarea de competențe, în scopul de a pune bazele în vederea satisfacerii nevoilor societății în viitor (septembrie, 2009).

Deci, ce se întâmplă când un copil nu este la școală până la vârsta de nouă sau zece ani? În mod logic, nu va fi în măsură să atingă standardele stabilite și, în cele mai multe cazuri, se va termina prin a fi marginalizat, ignorat și, în multe cazuri, exmatriculat din școală.

Conform Fuentes Navarro (2007), învățământul tradițional are în general următoarele caracteristici:

1-Programele indică faptul că elevii trebuie să învețe;acest criteriu de realizare se axează pe conținutul tematic al materiilor.

2 - Strategiile didactice destinate elevilor care doar trebuie sa asculta si sa citeasca, trebuie sa si reproducă ceea ce se predă

3 - Evaluarea de învățare se concentrează pe reproducerea de informații "a vedea" inca din clasa rezolvarea problemelor.

Reforma educației urmărește să standardizeze procesul de învățare si nu ia în considerare cultura, și experiențele fiecarui elev, căutand ca toată lumea să învețe la fel și în același mod, și întotdeauna sub îndrumarea unui profesor care este conceput ca singur are puterea de a transmite cunoștințele în modul în care consideră necesar, împiedicând dezvoltarea gândirii critice și a creativității elevilor.

Ele sunt predate prin repetare și memorare, prevenind interacțiunea cu mediul lor, de investigare și raportare, folosind diferite tehnici de învățarecare să le permită să învețe într-un mod mult mai dinamic și de lungă durată, nu iau în considerare experiențele lor de viață pentru a îmbogăți învățarea cat și integrarea acestestora cu ceea ce știu deja.

De aceea, greu de a învăța, apare la copii de școală primara sau prescolara. In general, cele mai multe sunt deficiențele in a înțelege ceea ce văd în clasă si nu se dezvoltă abilități analitice și de înțelegere, acestea fiind limitate. Cu toate acestea,copii proveniti din familii închegate au sprijinul părinților lor și acestora le este mai ușor să se ocupe de problemele cu care se confruntă. In cazul copiilor fara familie, aflati in adăposturi, în aproape toate cazurile sunt influentati negativ, limitându-se perceptia lor asupra lumii și capacitatea lor de a rezolva probleme simple și complexe cu care se confruntă în viața de zi cu zi.

De aceea este nevoie de o schimbarea in privinta structurii de lucru în sistemul național de învățământ, construit pe o percepție și pe un model teoretic de comportament și socio- constructivistă, care oferă confortul și ușurința de intrare a celor mici, deoarece nu ia în considerare familia lor, context social, cu atât mai puțin starea lor emotionala , un model teoretic care sa încurajeze interacțiunea copiilor din adaposturi cu cei din familii închegate, cu mediul lor , cu colegii și cu cunoștințele pe care le primesc în fiecare zi în educația lor formală pentru a-i face capabili să acționeze și să răspundă la situații și contexte diverse cu încrederea că se pot confrunta cu lumea din exterior într-un mod real si sigur, cu propriile sale criterii și gândire critică care să le permită să soluționeze orice diferend sau situație care implică elemente necunoscute pentru ei si că se bazează în principal pe dezvoltareade abilități care ii ajută cu adevărat, pe cunoștințele desprinse in clasă pentru situații specifice în viața lor de zi cu zi , și să promoveze in constiinta lor o învățare pe tot parcursul vieții, și de a restabili pe cât posibil, încrederea lor pentru a face față în toate domeniile din viața de zi cu zi.

Mulți dintre ei s-au simțit marginalizați și abandonati de propria familie, care a adus multe probleme de singurătate și întârzieri în procesul de învățare, iar motivația lor a fost afectată în mod semnificati, până în prezent nu au reușit să se integreze in educație în mod oficial iar din punct de vedere material, nu si-au indeplinit sarcinile pe care le au, reprezentand pentru ei o provocare majoră care si de multe ori nu se cred capabili sau eficienti.

De aceea, pentru includerea acestei populații în sistemul de învățământ ar trebui să se bazeze pe un model de metodă adecvat, concentrându-se pe interacțiunea reciprocăelev - profesor, dincolo de descrierea și aplicarea competențelor care astăzi sunt manipulate, se

propune ca elevii să meargă dincolo de reproducerea în formațiilor furnizate de ei în clasă sau în viața lor de zi cu zi, pentru a dezvolta metode calitative și ierarhic diferite în complexitate, să fie în contact direct sau indirect o referință, și să fie capabili de a experimenta și de a crea cu ea, iar în cele din urmă să poată forma propria lor experiență, propriile judecăți, opinii și referenți.

Modelul (descrie de Kantor, 1980; Ribes și Lopez, 1985), reprezintă o perspectivă interactivă de psihologie, de dezvoltare și învățare.

Învățare la școală este definită ca "o schimbare funcțională, în interacțiunea dintre cursant și obiectele fizice sau referenți care sunt discursuri didactice convenționale" (Ibáñez și Reyes, 2002). Modelul de învățare este un concept, nu reprezintă niciun rezultat sau proces de realizare. Este adevărat că învățarea are loc atunci când cunoașterea despre lucruri este dobândită, atunci când aceste lucruri le afla și cum să le folosească. (Ribes, 2002).

Pentru integrarea copiilor din adaposturi, sau case de copii, în sistemul educațional, se propune în mod eficient următoarele:

1 - Ca un prim pas pentru a realiza că integrarea ar trebui să formeze un grup de lucru special că aceasta s-a conformat de către psihologul educațional, care dezvoltă înregistrările clinice ale elevilor și să ofere strategii care sunt considerate potrivite pentru dezvoltarea completă emoțională și educativă. Profesorul care va pune în aplicare aceste strategii, va fi direct implicat cu ei în sala de clasă și de la școală, iar directorul trebuie să acorde permise și facilități pentru munca pe care elevii trebuie să o facă în cadrul școlii, iar tutorii care sunt responsabili de ei ar trebui să ofere un sprijin extrașcolar pentru elevii din adapost sau casa de copii, și să fie conștienți de nevoile lor. Acest lucru este important, deoarece fiecare joacă un rol fundamental în viața școlară a acestor elevi.

Acestia ar trebui să acorde o atenție specială încă de la venirea copilului din adapost în școală, și să-l introducă pas cu pas în dinamica școlară, să-l prezinte colegilor săi și personalului care lucrează acolo și să-i explice ce funcție deține fiecare. Să-l învețe că există o structură și că sunt reguli și un anumit program, ce trebuie respectate îndeplinite, într-un mod pozitiv, indicând ce se poate face și să-i explice de ce, astfel încât acestia să poată analiza în mod corespunzător, observa modul în care aceste reguli funcționează și nu să fie împinși sau forțați să urmeze ritmul academic al celorlalți elevi. Să le asculte îndoielile și temerile lor, pentru că după cum se menționează mai sus, majoritatea acestor copii nu au frecventat școala iar pentru ei este o lume nouă pentru care nu sunt pregătiți atât de bine, având semnificative deficiențe în procesul de învățare, motivația lor va fi foarte scăzută, însă acest lucru nu înseamnă că toți copiii din adaposturi au aceste probleme. Unii au nevoie de un pic de timp, de sprijin adecvat și de implementare de strategii din partea profesorilor.

2 - Dezvoltarea unui raport psihologic, este important la intrarea acestor copii în sistemul educațional. Psihologul școlar împreună cu managerii pot dezvolta din punct de vedere psihologic un copil aflat într-o asemenea situație. În acest caz, ei trebuie să cunoască toate detaliile personale, care sunt cunoscute în istoria vieții copilului, așa cum a fost admiterea în casa de copii și modul în care a evoluat de atunci. La această înregistrare, sau la acest dosar, vor avea acces doar psihologul și directorul de școală. De asemenea, ei trebuie să facă un raport special pentru profesori, cu privire la aspectele care sunt considerate vitale pentru ca acestia să lucreze cu copilul.

3 - Cadrele didactice ar trebui să elaboreze un raport de învățământ, unde sa se menționeze ceea ce au observat despre copil, sa prezinte educaționale, precum și modul în care acesta sa poata învăța mai ușor.

4 - În cazul în care după un timp, se pare că acest prim sprijin nu a reușit să-l faca pe copil sa se integreze în mod corespunzător și ca ar avea probleme de învățare mai profundă și, prin urmare, necesită mai multă atenție, atunci ar fi nevoie de masuri educaționale speciale descrise prin Warnock (1979) care se refera la acei elevi cu dificultăți de învățare sau lacune în ceea ce privește memorarea, pentru a le prezenta alte mijloace si a aborda într-un alt mod planul de adaptare la viata reala educationala cu o atenție deosebită în ceea ce priveste structura socială și climatul emoțional în care are loc evenimentul de învățământ.

Vreau să spun că ar trebui să fie restructurat, astfel încât conținutul poate fi asimilat mult mai ușor, și mai ușor de înțeles, dinamic și interactiv pentru acești elevi, ținând întotdeauna seama de ceea ce știu și cum să învețe. Deoarece acestea pot construi abilități de viață care să le permită să creeze competențe pentru a acționa în mod eficient în diferite situații de viață si a lua deciziile necesare.

5 – psihologul educațional și profesorul trebuie să dezvolte împreună un plan adaptat, sa descrie modul în care se va lucra cu copilul, ce ajustări să fie făcute în acest plan. În cazul în care acestea sunt temporare sau permanente, modul în care acestea includ grupul de elevi, dacă se recomandă terapii psihologice individuale, și ce strategii vor fi efectuate pentru a dobândi competențele necesare pentru învățare. Această propunere ar trebui să fie împărtășite cu cei care se ocupă de adapost, casa de copii. Cadrele didactice sau psihologii care fac parte din aceasta, trebuie sa sprijine copilul la sarcinile extracurriculare iar progresul este mult mai important.

Acestia ar trebui să facă o planificare de învățământ care afișează conținutul programului și o descriere a activităților și strategiilor pe care si le doresc a le efectua, prin predarea acestora copiilor.

6 - Profesorul trebuie să ofere consiliere speciala în cazul în care este necesara pentru a rezolva îndoielile elevilor și să se asigure că au înțeles ceea ce li se cere , impunand criterii clare de realizare. Si anume, profesorul ar trebui să explice elevilor ceea ce se așteaptă de la ei. Este important să se respecte această parte, deoarece acestea sunt folosite sau utilizate pentru a fi evaluate. Elevul poate fi speriat sau confuz și , prin urmare, nu merge bine în evaluări. A fost, de asemenea, observat că de multe ori elevii, ce participa la examene care includ întrebări complicate care necesita raspunsuri complexe, forțându-i să memoreze și să reproducă cunoștințe, nu înțeleg cu adevărat toate acestea. Atunci când există și alte modalități de a evalua mult mai eficiente , cum ar fi expoziții sau proiecte în care există posibilitatea ca elevii sa interacționeze direct cu ceea ce se predă , și de a dezvolta abilități de cercetare, gândirea critică și de analiză, se recomandă ca rezultatele evaluării sa se poate faca prin combinarea scorurilor de sarcini, de participare, prezență, proiecte și expoziții, și a verifica dacă îndeplinește criteriile de realizare date la început , și atât elevii cat și profesorii sa poata afla dacă este adevărat că învățarea se obține și dacă aceasta a fost semnificativă și care sunt domeniile pe care ar trebui să le consolideze în continuare.

7 - Profesorul trebuie să efectueze evaluări periodice de lucru cu elevii pentru a vedea dacă s-au îndeplinit criteriile de realizare, și dacă studenții au dobândit abilitățile necesare din

zonele de lucru, sa descrie in detaliu modul în care au făcut-o, si ce anume le lipsește precum si ce activități și materiale sunt necesare pentru a continua să lucreze cu elevii.

8 - Profesorul ar trebui încurajeze elevii sa continue si sa avanseze prin integrarea in educația oficială, felicitandu-i în mod direct cu privire la valoarea constatata, in progresul de integrare in grup. Incat acestia sa interactioneze cu colegii lor, conform Interkultureller Austausch www.grenzenlos.or.

Acest lucru poate fi facut prin jocuri si munca in echipa, prin exercitii de reflecție si reciprocitate, astfel incat cu mare grijă toti elevii sa se intalneasca la acelasi nivel.

Acest lucru este esențial, deoarece copiii care provin din adăposturi sau case de copii, au o stimă de sine foarte scăzută, pentru că prin abuzul de abandon și violența asupra lor, au fost supusi în mod continuu la deterioararea sinelui, devenind profund singuratici. Pentru ca nu gasesc un sprijin care să le răspundă nevoilor lor, și, deși casele de copii, in ofera un anumit sprijin dorinta ca acesti copii sa fie bine si sa mearga mai departe, de cele mai multe ori nu pot avea grijă de fiecare copil și nu pot să ofere dragostea și atenția de care ei au nevoie. Cu siguranță, aceasta afectează performanța elevilor, făcându-i mai mult predispuși la eșec și abandon școlar.

9 -Ar trebui să se evite etichetarea elevilor, deoarece de multe ori sunt clasificați în funcție de ceea ce ei nu pot face sau prin prisma punctelor lor slabe și acest lucru ii afectează suficient incat ei sa înceapa să creada in lucrurile negative pe care le spun ceilalti, si care devin piedica in calea progresului lor. Cu toate acestea, este important ca profesorul impreuna cu psihologul si tutorele sau cu paznicii din casa de copii unde acești elevi locuiesc, sa le caute abilitățile, ceea ce le place și ceea ce li se dă, și de a le urmări drepturile în justiție, sa simta si ei cu adevărat ca sunt capabili și ca au potențialul de a reuși. In cazul în care se poate schimba perceptia, stima de sine, și motivație, atunci va fi mult mai ușor să achiziționeze spe a învăta pentru formarea profesională și personală.

10 -E important să se ia întotdeauna în considerare contextul cunoscut al acestor elevi și să se înțeleagă modul în care au crescut, familia lor, ori relația sa cu ei, pentru că de acolo au construit personalitatea lor, ideile lor , convingerile lor, tradițiile lor și realitatea lor, și consideră că acestea au acum o casă nouă, care le impune în mod inevitabil, noi reguli și realități.

In mod normal, aceasta realitate ar fi produs-o familia, dar ata funcțional sau disfuncțională ei trebuie să lupte și să se ocupe cu problemele lor singuri, in aceste locuri unde au fost parasiți, și simt ca totul doare, făcându-i tristi, furiosi. Ei trebuie să reînvete să aibă loc în lumea, sa se bucure și sa-si construiasca o noua identitate fata de toți cei cu care au trăit si pe care i-au cunoscut, precum și ceea ce este acum nou in viața lor, pentru ca numai astfel pot face față provocărilor impuse acestora, fără frică și cu certitudine că ele se pot realiza .

11 -Ar trebui să ia în considerare dorințele și așteptările elevilor. Sa ia în considerare ceea ce doresc pentru viața lor și pentru viitorul lor, împingandu-i spre locul unde doresc să ajungă, sa le fie suport și sa le indice alternativele pe care le au. Dar, in acelasi timp sa nu le dea idei false sau speranțe, dacă nu-și pot exploata resursele fara a lucra cu ei, cu instrumentele pe care le au deja și pe care ei le știu deja, Să le arate o abordare exactă a realității și ce pot face cu ea, sa-i învețe că ei pot transforma împrejurimile lor, dacă vor fi mereu decisi si vor depune efort și perseverență.

Acest lucru poate fi realizat prin crearea unui plan de viață, unde elevii scriu cu privire la scopurile și obiectivele lor și să se reflecteze asupra a ceea ce ei doresc să studieze mai târziu, se recomandă ca profesorii cu psihologul educațional să ghideze elevii în acest proces pentru a clarifica toate îndoilele.

12 -Ar trebui să încurajeze elevii să construiască viitorul lor cu bucurie, încurajându-i să găsească ceea ce le place și ce-i bucură , astfel îi va ajuta să se simtă mult mai încrezători pentru a face față școlii și isivor da seama că sunt pe deplini capabili sa învete și să demonstreze si celorlalti ca sunt capabili.

13 - Profesorii trebuie să învețe să se conecteze cu elevii, să interacționeze cu acestia, adică trebuie să înțeleagă ceea ce au ei nevoie, ce măsuri le sunt prezentate pentru a-i ajuta în mod eficient. Uneori elevii nu comunică cu cuvinte, nu spun ceea ce simt sau ceea ce-i doare , ceea ce doresc cu adevărat și au comportamente contradictorii mergând înainte și înapoi, tot timpul. De aceea profesorul ar trebui să comunice cu ei și să-i capteze în încercarea de a-i face să comunice. Nu trebuie neapărat să vorbească direct ci să caute alte moduri, inclusiv să facă activități cu ei, care să le permită să creeze povestea lor și să vorbească despre ceea ce sunt. Aceste moduri- ar putea transpune prin desene, poezii, povești și jocuri.

14-Guvernul și Secretarul de Educație Publică din Mexic, ar trebui să ofere toate cadrelor didactice din țară instrumentele necesare pentru a fi mai bine pregătiți pentru a satisface nevoile nu numai ale copiilor din adăposturi, dar și tuturor copiilor care ajung în sălile de clasă. Acestia ar trebui să învețe să conștientizeze și care sunt metodele și strategiile care pot fi utilizate pentru a realiza învățarea și ce se așteaptă de la ei, să transmită pe tot parcursul anului școlar.

15 -Cele mai multe școli federale din Mexic, și în primul rând pentru cei care se află în zonele de sărăcie extremă sau în locuri îndepărtate, lipsa facilităților adecvate, a sălilor de clasă, ce sunt de obicei mici pentru numărul mare de elevi înscriși, ce fac să se distragă unul pe altul dar și disconfortul atât pentru elevi cât și insatisfacerea cadrelor didactice precum și toleranță necesară pentru a învăța, duc la trunchierea motivării pentru învățare. Ceea ce înseamnă servicii de bază, cum ar fi lipsa de apă sau electricitate, și pregătirea necesară nu este prevăzută pentru cadrele didactice în a ajuta elevii cu nevoi în învățământul special, de aceea este nevoie ca guvernul să aloce un fond special pentru astfel de școli pentru ca ele să poată merge mai departe și să ducă la o îmbunătățire a acestui sistem.

16 -Guvernul ar trebui să sprijine prin acordarea de burse elevii care sunt în sărăcie sau care sunt plasați în adăposturi sau centre de plasament, astfel încât acestia să poată fi integrați în educația de bază și ca acestia să pot satisface școala lor de bază nevoile de învățare adecvate de exemplu, având acces la materiale de calitate, cărți, uniforme școlare, etc.

De asemenea, este important de menționat că, copiii mexicani sunt în prezent, victime ale violenței care afectează țara, se simt nesiguri și nemotivați și cel mai rău este că mulți dintre ei copiază aceste comportamente violente, maltratează, insultă și amenință reciproc de aceea, este necesar să se intervină imediat și acest lucru este posibil doar prin livrarea de ateliere de lucru pentru a promova pacea în școlile în care psihologi profesioniști sunt în măsură să satisfacă toți elevii care au nevoie de el și îi pot ghida atunci când acestia sunt în situații de violență și, de asemenea, pot detecta mai multe cazuri grave care implică abuz sau exploatarea copiilor și se poate face plângerea în fața autorităților competente pentru ca acestea să se rezolve în regim de urgență.

Copiii care provin din adăposturi, sau centre de plasament, sunt mai susceptibili de a fi supuși de către colegii lor la violență, acest lucru datorindu-se istoriei sale și tuturor problemelor de violență care au trăit în prealabil, astfel încât psihologii educaționali să aibă o grijă deosebită, în special cu ei în această privință și să detecteze orice situație neobișnuită pentru a le oferi sprijin psihologic în cadrul școlii pentru a l-i ajuta să facă față colegilor lor și mediului lor de învățământ.

Este necesar și urgent să înceapă transformarea educației în Mexic , pentru toți copiii care fac parte din ea. Merită să fie integrat pe deplin și în mod adecvat la școală , ar trebui să fie sprijinit și încurajat de către guvern și sistemul de învățământ , numai atunci vor fi noi posibilități de a merge mai departe ca o societate adevărată, deoarece ignoranța duce la sărăcie și disperare. Toți acești copii sunt subiecți violente pline de resentimente și mânie, de lipsa de oportunități, de a fi recunoscuți , înțeleși și susținuți. În acest moment au nevoie de aceasta transformare , de a începe a forma oameni cu calități umane și abilități de viață care să le permită să se dezvolte pe deplin, nu mai trebuie să fie elevi cu etichete sau de a aduce atingere , din cauza contextului lor sau istoriei vieții lor, și, în schimb ar trebui să înceapă stimularea unei gândiri critice , de conștientizare, de cunoaștere , curiozitate și dorința de a învăța cu răbdare și toleranță. De a permite întotdeauna prin sensibilitate și dragoste, să treacă pe diferite trepte ale cunoașterii. Ei vor avea nevoie de tot ajutorul pentru integrare , nu numai în școală, dar și în societate. Acestea sunt adesea prezentate ca un câmp de luptă în care copii instituționalizați în centre sunt deseori răniți și de aceea, această lucrare urmărește să ofere o imagine de ansamblu și câteva strategii pentru a ajuta la schimbarea a ceea ce se întâmplă în sistemul de învățământ din țară .

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EDUCATION ET SOCIALIZATION PAR LA COMMUNICATION

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Abstract: The education and socialization is achieved through the positive and/or negative influences of the subjects who may be individuals, groups or institutions, mainly through communication, on the educational objective. These influences usually occur in mentality and behavior of those that are being educated. The relationships established between the subject and the object during the influencing action is based on different types of language communication: natural, artificial, gesticulation and the ectosemantic and endosemantic message type that are accompanying the language. The instructional-educational language is the primary means of achieving the social and educational actions.

Keywords: education, primary socialization, secondary socialization, communication, development.

L'Éducation n'agit jamais seul mais uniquement en conjonction avec d'autres facteurs et le développement résulte de l'interaction de facteurs. Le développement et la socialisation apparaissent comme deux formes : peuvent être de base, fondement, pour l'éducation mais peuvent également être des effets, produits obtenus à la suite de l'intervention de l'éducation. L'Être humain, étant la seule personne qui peut se soumettre à l'éducation est en permanence sous la loupe des facteurs du développement de la personnalité.

La socialisation est l'action qui permet à l'individu de s'attribuer des divers rôles sociaux nécessaires de cohabitation dans la société. On peut parler d'un cercle vicieux où l'adolescent est inclus, c'est à dire *socialisation - la construction de soi même - le milieu*. Bien sûr que celui-ci n'est qu'un récepteur d'influences, mais il a un rôle actif à la recherche des informations qui le dirige dans le comportement. Ainsi, on peut parler de autosocialisation, en tenant compte que l'adolescent, dans le chemin des recherches de soi même, adhère du milieu familial dans des divers environnements socio-culturels. En même temps dans ce processus si complexe, l'individu **est** responsable pour le renforcement de soi, aussi.

Les formes de la socialisation

Sans pouvoir parler des stades précisément délimités en ce qui concerne la socialisation, on peut détacher *deux grandes formes: la socialisation primaire et la socialisation secondaire*.

La socialisation primaire – signifie la socialisation proprement dite, qui a lieu pendant la petite enfance et parmi laquelle l'individu, ne avec des renforcements pour la vie sociale, y devient un membre effectif, en activant des connaissances des compétences, des valeurs, des attitudes et des comportements humains. On intériorise le monde social, on cristallise la version subjective de la réalité socio humaine. Les agents qui interviennent dans cette intériorisation sont premièrement les personnes signifiants et, comme l'enfant se naît dans une certaine structure sociale, ces personnes (parmi lesquels les parents occupent un lieu central) lui sont quelque peu imposés, prédéfinis. L'enfant s'identifie avec ces autres personnes pertinentes, proches qui à leur tour lui sont des médiateurs à sa réalité en la modifiant en rapport de leur propre position dans l'espace social et avec leur propre expérience de vie. Le

monde social apparaît ainsi, à la personnalité en développement filtré par ce double sélection (statut socio - économique et profil axiologique de personnes importantes)

Dans le processus de l'interaction sans relâche entre l'individu augmentant et les autres (spécialement les signifiants) il y a lieu la formation du soi-même et de l'identité du soi. En fait, dans une grande mesure le soi reflète les attitudes des personnes signifiantes envers cet individu bien que nous ne pouvons pas réduire l'auto identification à une simple copie de l'identification par les autres. Plutôt on peut se référer à une permanente circularité entre eux.

Par la socialisation primaire, dans son stade de généralisation, on établit une symétrie, pas totale bien sûr, entre la réalité objective et celle subjective. Le contenu spécifique, ainsi que l'ordre, le programme de ce que s'intériorise varie d'une culture à une autre, d'un groupe social à un autre. Important à retenir c'est, le fait que, à cause que l'enfant ne choisit pas les personnes signifiantes, l'identification avec elle est quasi automatique, et l'intériorisation d'une certaine réalité est inévitable. Voilà pourquoi, l'identité ethnique est une composante aprioristique construite de l'identité personnelle de l'enfant. À cette âge on peut parler de ce que dans la littérature de spécialité est nommé le réalisme moral, c'est à dire la tendance de l'enfant de considérer les devoirs et les valeurs qui se réfèrent à eux comme en y subsistant, indépendant de la conscience, et qui s'imposent obligatoirement, quel que soit les circonstances où l'individu est engagé. Dans la société d'aujourd'hui, avec des tendances de globalisation, où le pluralisme commence se pratiquer comme *desideratum*, l'idée avec un seul monde réel ne peut pas être appliquée, surtout dans l'éducation du petit enfant.

La socialisation secondaire - est liée de la division sociale du travail et de la distribution sociale des connaissances. Elle suppose l'internalisation des exigences, des informations, des valeurs promues par des divers institutions spécialisés. Si dans la première socialisation l'individu assimile le monde social de base, par la socialisation secondaire il s'approprie les réalités partiales. En même temps, la socialisation secondaire est le franchissement du monde d'enfance, à un monde plus hétérogène. Ici aussi fonctionnent des personnes plus signifiantes, mais elles sont plus fluctuantes, et l'individu a un certain contrôle sur eux, au sens qu'il peut renoncer à eux en faveur des autres, vue la maintenance de sa propre identité. Spontanément ou consciemment il va sélectionner du potentiel des relations interpersonnelles celles qui confirment et entretiennent l'auto identification et l'estime de soi. L'influence paternelle devienne de moins en moins significative, le groupe d'amis en lui occupant la place dans le processus de la formation de sa personnalité

On peut dire que l'entrée dans la socialisation secondaire coïncide, généralement, avec le franchissement à la puberté et adolescence et donc aux conditions de statut socio professionnel on chevauchement des nouvelles étapes du développement intellectuel. Il y a lieu spécialement le franchissement de la pensée concrète à celle abstraite. Maintenant est très important, pour le jeune en devenir, la légitimité du système axiologique propose, sa pensée devenant de plus en plus critique-dubitative et prétendant des arguments rationnelles pour divers pratiques, normes valeurs et identifications sociaux. Les attitudes et les comportements sociaux qu'il apprend à cette étape, les intériorise au moment où ceux lui peuvent soutenir l'identité personnelle et en même temps on la complète ainsi qu'elle lui confère plus de confiance dans ses propres forces.

D'une autre cote, la socialisation secondaire peut signifier, en fait une *resocialisation*, si la réalité socio culturelle et implicite celle symbolique axiologique où elle entre, est

substantiellement différente de celle internalisée dans la première socialisation. Quand la trajectoire de vie de l'individu continue dans le même milieu socio culturel, la socialisation secondaire va dans la prolongation de la première sans être besoin de la restructuration axiologique. Les phénomènes de resocialisation sont évidentes quand on passe d'une culture à une autre, en ce qui est nommé enculturation.

Par la socialisation secondaire le préadolescent, l'adolescent et le jeune s'approprient un monde plus ou moins proche de celle de la socialisation primaire, mais pas totalement différente. En ce sens, sur le plan de la mentalité, du axiologique et de la conscience identitaire, le problème n'est pas de nier, minimiser ou modifier le passé par la perspective du présent, mais d'harmoniser, de trouver des synthèses entre les deux mondes. Dans le processus de l'édification du soi au cours de la socialisation, les interactions avec les autres avec les personnes proches et signifiants, mais, dès nos jours même du petite enfance, par les moyens de communication de masse, l'accès aux autres est sans limites et quelquefois difficile de contrôler.

Dans l'analyse du processus de la formation de la personnalité à l'adolescent, on ne peut pas faire abstraction du milieu éco-culturel où il habite, qui comprend, les contextes physiques et sociaux, avec les pratiques éducatifs et les représentations sociales du développement et de l'éducation.

L'école – facteur de socialisation

L'école est une institution avec une forme spéciale d'organisation, qui peut être vue comme un type de société, comme un système social. L'école doit être regardée comme un montage composé de plusieurs types des exigences sociales et communautaires. Chaque institution scolaire doit faire des compromis pour qu'elles n'entre en conflit avec des divers groupes ou communautés. Elle ne fonctionne pas comme un système fermé, mais comme l'un ouvert à la réalisation des objectifs importantes, qui plus ou moins coïncident au niveau individuel, communautaire ou social:

- La socialisation: apprendre d'être membre de la société;
- La sélection, l'éducation et le placement de l'individu dans la société;
- L'orientation vers le changement et l'innovation;
- Le développement social et personnel.

Pour faciliter l'explication des relations d'entre l'école et l'environnement, Pierre Bourdieu (1977) utilisa la notion du champ. Chaque champ comprend des acteurs dotés avec un habitus bien défini qui dose ses efforts ainsi qu'il peut le dynamiser. Pour l'adolescent l'école est le terrain où il construit son identité sociale, estime de soi, responsabilité personnelle et sociale, dans les conditions d'une communauté où les adultes gardent et promeuvent des valeurs et des normes sociales. L'école est l'institution qui apprend l'élève des habiletés et des comportements sociaux, et la communauté est le champ où il exerce les habiletés acquises pour devenir acteur social. La société semble adapter et modeler les sois des individus.

Une fois assimilés ces choses, l'adolescent intériorise aussi les représentations sociales de la communauté socioculturelle d'où il fait partie, représentations sociales qui se réfèrent à

la société d'appartenance et aux autres communautés socioculturelles, aussi. Les jeunes ne sont pas passives dans l'assimilation des normes, des valeurs et des comportements sociaux, mais ils peuvent devenir des participants actifs, constructifs pour leur propre connaissance, la connaissance du monde sociale où ils vivent, de ce qu'ils sont vraiment ou de ce qu'ils peuvent devenir.

Dans le contexte de l'existence dans la communauté des certains institutions capables de garder et encourager cet objectif, les adolescents peuvent inter actionner, peuvent observer les effets de ces interactions sur leur propre comportement ou sur les autres, en l'évaluant, en le modifiant en même temps. Un jeune peut, sur sa propre décision, se comporter comme une autre personne du groupe d'ont il appartienne, en jugeant le moyen où il peut s'attacher aux amis du groupe, aux autres en général.

De la perspective pédagogique, John Dewey (1977) évalue pragmatiquement le développement social que l'école facilite aux élèves, en suggérant l'idée des alternatives éducationnelles (le système des ouvertes, des écoles progressistes) destinées à promouvoir des structures éducationnelles favorables au processus de socialisation. Erikson (1968), de la perspective psychosociale apporte en premier plan l'idée que l'école favorise la relation entre l'étape du moratoire institutionnalise et le processus de la maturité sociale.

La culture et le climat scolaire sont deux éléments qui fournies des réponses pour toutes les actions de l'adolescent qu'il entreprend dans l'école. Elles offrent des moyens d'interaction avec l'environnement, en l'orientant et en le stimulant dans un espace d'une puissante colorature identitaire. Quoi que le milieu scolaire représente un lieu de rencontre des stéréotypes et des préjugés, l'ouverture sociale vers la tolérance se réalise ici.

Education – socialisation- communication

Dans la communication éducationnelle l'acte pédagogique est un curatif. L'élève, est aide de parler, on lui procure la source de la satisfaction, de l'accomplissement des divers besoins d'expressions spontanée, ou bien pensée et préparée. Ainsi, la communication efficiente devient possible et, de cette manière, la manifestation libre, favorisée de sa force de communiquer, de la confiance qu'il peut donner clairette et beauté à l'idée, à la pensée, au sentiment. (Şoitu, L., 1997)

La communication éducationnelle ou la communication pédagogique représente un transfère complexe, multiphasique et parmi beaucoup des voies des informations entre les individus ou entre les groupes qui s'assument simultanément ou successivement les rôles des émetteurs ou récepteurs, signifiant les contenues désirables dans le processus d'enseignement. La communication éducationnelle suppose un interaction de type feedback, concernant aussi les informations explicites, que les adjacentes, transmises par les autres voies. La notion de communication implique une certaine réciprocité, plus générale et plus complexe que l'information, qui n'est qu'un cote de la communication. La communication éducationnelle suppose une processualité circulaire, qui s'inscrit dans une certain temporalité du quelle tient compte et quelle, à son tour la modèle. Conformément aux certains analyses faites par certains chercheurs, la communication peut être hiérarchique ou réciproque.

La communication hiérarchique se caractérise par le fait que l'interlocuteur occupe des positions divers, l'un supérieur, émettant plus, l'autre inférieure, en recevant surtout des

messages. L'interlocuteur de la position supérieure a plus fréquent l'initiative du message, et le message est codé, prévisible et de type prescriptif.

La communication réciproque, au contraire, est celle où les partenaires n'occupent aucune position privilégiée, l'initiative du message appartenant à chacun en mesure égale, et le message est moins prévisible, plus informel et le processus est plus ouvert aux perfectionnements. (Berger, 1988).

La communication éducationnelle implique les deux stratégies, la prédominante de l'une dans un certain contexte étant justifiée par les objectifs visés, le contenu transmis, les méthodes et les moyens didactiques déployés. Pendant que le professeur émet, le locuteur-élève construit, sur les éléments informationnels présents, son message, qui, partiellement sera retourné explicitement ou par la transparence de la mimique, des gestes au professeur. Celui-ci fait deux actions en même temps, il parle et il écoute les élèves. La communication didactique a un aspect improbable, parce que la stratégie didactique peut être résinée, chaque moment.

L'éducation se réalise par l'intervention des maîtres, prépondérante par la communication, dans la mentalité et le comportement de la personnalité de ceux qui sont éduqués.

Dans le contexte de l'analyse de la communication éducationnelle, particulièrement opportun est le concept d'intervention éducative, introduit par Constantin Sălăvăstru (Sălăvăstru, C., 1995).

L'intervention éducative a comme objectif tout acte humain par l'intermédiaire duquel se réalise une certaine influence sur l'individu, influence capable de déterminer une certaine réaction de celui-ci, une certaine modification de sa personnalité. L'intervention éducative suppose la production d'une relation de communication par l'intermédiaire du langage naturel, artificiel ou de geste, le langage éducationnel étant un moyen de réalisation d'une intervention éducative.

Sălăvăstru distingue trois types fondamentaux d'intervention éducative (Sălăvăstru, C., 1995):

- Interventions éducatives par soi ou auto interventions-où le porteur de l'intervention se concrétise dans des processus, états, sentiments intrinsèques à la personnalité du récepteur, et l'intervention se déclenche à la suite de l'impact de ces sentiments ; en ce type d'interventions celui qui réalise l'intervention et celui sur lequel est réalisée l'intervention sont la même personne.
- Interventions éducatives par l'autre – représente le cas classique de l'éducation, où le récepteur souffre de l'influence d'une autre personne ou des réalités personnalisées.
- Interventions éducatives par « mentalités » communautaires- où le porteur de l'intervention se concrétise dans des valeurs des groupes, et la relation du récepteur avec ces valeurs déclenchent une intervention éducative.

Conclusions

La compétence de communication dans le contexte didactique c'est l'efficacité dans l'éducation. Pour réussir la réalisation d'une intervention éducative de succès, l'éducateur doit prouver de contrôle et de valoriser des certaines compétences de communication, pour

que pendant le déroulement du processus instructif-éducatif, ces compétences soient formées et développées par les élèves. Ça suppose que l'éducateur contrôle ces habiletés, capacités appliqués aux contenus et aux connaissances. En même temps il devra non pas connaître et comprendre l'élève, et surtout, pouvoir lui communiquer le mode où il le comprend.

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ONLINE MEDIA AND NEW TECHNOLOGIES IN THE TEACHING OF LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINES

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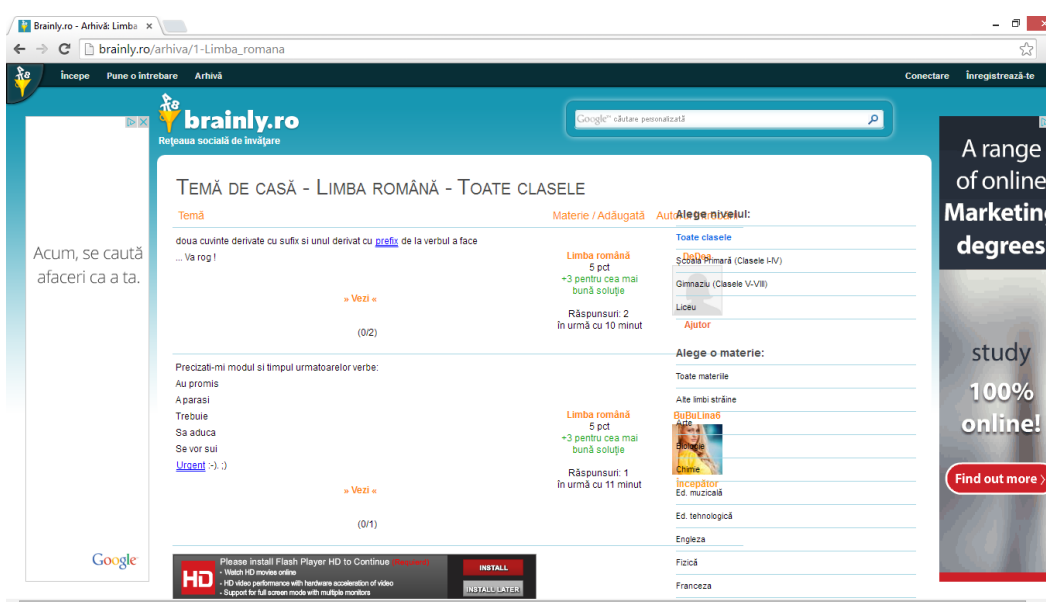
Abstract: In a highly tech era in which the internet and Android or iOS apps are gaining more and more influence around young people, this paper aims at presenting and analyzing educational applications, in order to support the learning process in school and especially in universities. The author used this kind of application during an academic semester, watching and discussing the benefits and also the disadvantages of using the online environment and those applications in educational activities. This research is limited to a few linguistic disciplines that the author of this study teaches. The results were compared with those of previous years, before using the application, and the differences are, in our view surprising.

Keywords: Virtual environment, educational applications, technology in educational process, linguistics

Într-o eră extrem tehnologizată, în care internetul și aplicațiile Windows, Android sau iOS câștigă tot mai mult teren și mai mulți adepți, lucrarea de față își propune prezentarea și analiza unor softuri și aplicații (gratuite sau cu versiune „trial”) menite să sprijine procesul de învățământ, atât în sistemul preuniversitar cât, mai ales, în cel universitar. Autorul a folosit aceste tehnologii pe perioada unui semestru universitar, urmărind și analizând beneficiile și dezavantajele utilizării unor aplicații și a internetului în desfășurarea activităților didactice. Cercetarea este restrânsă la câteva discipline lingvistice pe care le predă autorul lucrării, acestea fiind Lingvistică generală, Comunicare scrisă și orală, Istoria limbii române literare și Introducere în Psiholingvistică. Rezultatele au fost comparate cu cele din anii anteriori, înainte de a fi folosite aplicațiile.

Una dintre cele mai cunoscute și utilizate platforme virtuale de tip educațional este BRAINLY. Intenția ei este a aduna laolaltă, organizate inițial pe categorii de vârstă, apoi în funcție de discipline, grupuri de „învățăcei”. Utilizatorii, în funcție de vârstă, cum spuneam, constituie adevărate comunități și, urmând principiul „întrebări și răspunsuri”, învață unii de la ceilalți ceea ce îi interesează. În principiu, platforma este un suport important în vederea efectuării temelor de acasă. Concret, dacă un utilizator nu reușește să rezolve o problemă, un exercițiu sau, pur și simplu, nu are altă posibilitate să afle un răspuns, va posta întrebarea care îl frământă. Va primi de la ceilalți utilizatori rezolvarea sau răspunsul, dar numai însoțite de o explicație sau un argument. Întrucât scopul declarat este acela ca utilizatorii să înțeleagă și nu „doar” să afle, este interzisă postarea directă a răspunsului. Mai exact, membrilor nu li se permite postarea răspunsului, ci a rezolvării. În funcție de postări și de ajutorul acordat celorlalți, utilizatorii primesc puncte. Acestea stabilesc o ierarhie. Pe pagina de start a platformei cei cu punctaj mare vor apărea, pe domenii, cu scopul de a-i motiva, drept „cei mai deștepti membri”. Utilizatorii pot discuta între ei și se învață astfel, „pe limba lor”, unii pe alții. Utilizatorii sunt atât de mulți, încât polonezii de la Brainly garantează că fiecare întrebare va primi răspuns în cel târziu 10 minute. Platforma are interfață în limba română,

există și sub formă de aplicație pentru smartphone sau tabletă și este „user friendly”, mai ales dacă ținem seama că sunt foarte mulți elevi de școală generală care o folosesc. Din experiența noastră ea este foarte populară printre tinerii studioși.

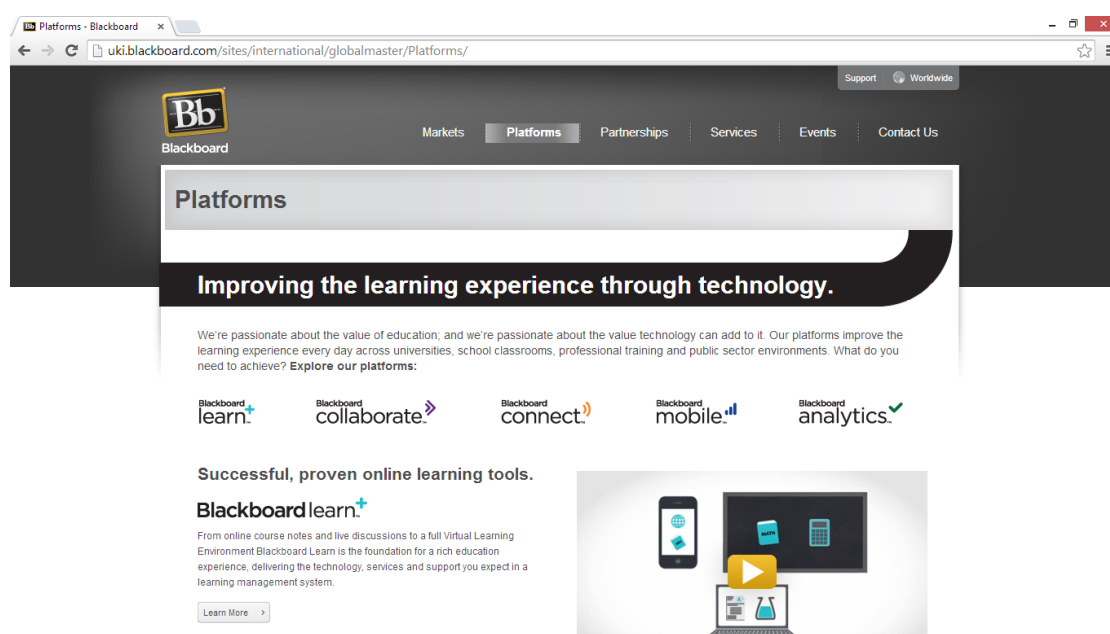


Una dintre cele mai folosite (iar multe voci susțin că și una dintre cele mai bune) platforme virtuale educaționale este BLACKBOARD. Mai exact, aceasta este un Learning Management System (LMS) în toată puterea cuvântului. Folosit atât în mediul pre- cât și universitar, acest soft înlesnește în mod substanțial, în special, comunicarea. Studenții pot participa la discuții, pot colabora în diverse proiecte, pot dezbate diverse probleme, își pot trimite fișiere sau linkuri unii altora etc. Cadrele didactice pot fi consultate online, pot posta diverse anunțuri sau „instant e-mail” tuturor studenților care sunt înscriși la cursul lor ș.a. Se

pot încărca inclusiv teste pe care studenții să le rezolve, studenții pot posta sarcinile sau proiectele pe care le aveau de realizat etc.

Platforma există și sub formă de aplicație pentru device-uri mobile și este în mare măsură „user friendly”, în sensul că oricine știe să deschidă un cont de e-mail, se va descurca, în primă fază, și cu acest program, dar, în funcție de necesități, devine din ce în ce mai complicată utilizarea lui, într-atât încât, de la un punct este nevoie de un administrator (și chiar o firmă I.T.) care să se ocupe de acest sistem (care se poate dezvolta chiar la nivel de campus).

Din experiența noastră, Blackboard nu este populară în țara noastră, studenții negăsind-o „atractivă”. Pe lângă acesta, aplicația are versiune „trial”, dar după 30 de zile devine nefolositoare. Varianta completă este foarte scumpă, prețul variază în funcție de „accesorii” și merită achiziționată doar la nivel de instituție (și puține instituții dispun de bugetul necesar).



Un puternic concurent al acestui LMS este MOODLE. Nu are o parte din avantajele Blackboard, dar are unul demn de toată atenția: este gratuit. Și, mai mult: cadrele didactice îl pot configura după bunul lor plac. Scopul principal declarat al Moodle este de a aduce educația la indivizi, oriunde s-ar afla ei. Votată drept una dintre cele mai propice platforme pentru învățământul la distanță, Moodle este apreciată de cei care, din diverse motive, nu dau randament în școala / sistemul tradițional.

În momentul de față, acest soft este folosit în 237 de țări, de mai bine de un milion de cadre didactice și 70 de milioane de elevi și studenți. Aceștia din urmă pot urmări în timp real evoluția lor, pot cere lămuriri și pot interacționa între ei, având posibilități aproape nelimitate de interacțiune cu ceilalți. De asemenea, în funcție de activități, pot fi recompensați de către profesori cu diverse insigne virtuale.

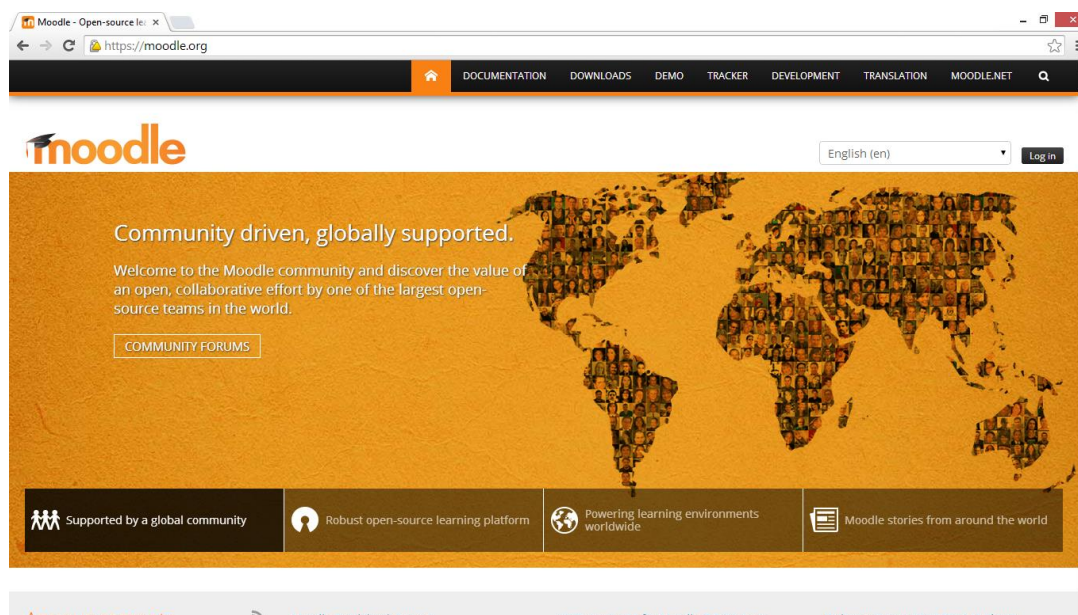
Spre deosebire de alte asemenea sisteme, Moodle permite o mai rapidă postare a fișierelor. Profesorul poate „urca” materiale pe pagina sa, prin procedeul „drag and drop”, asemănător celui de copiere a fișierelor în Windows Explorer.

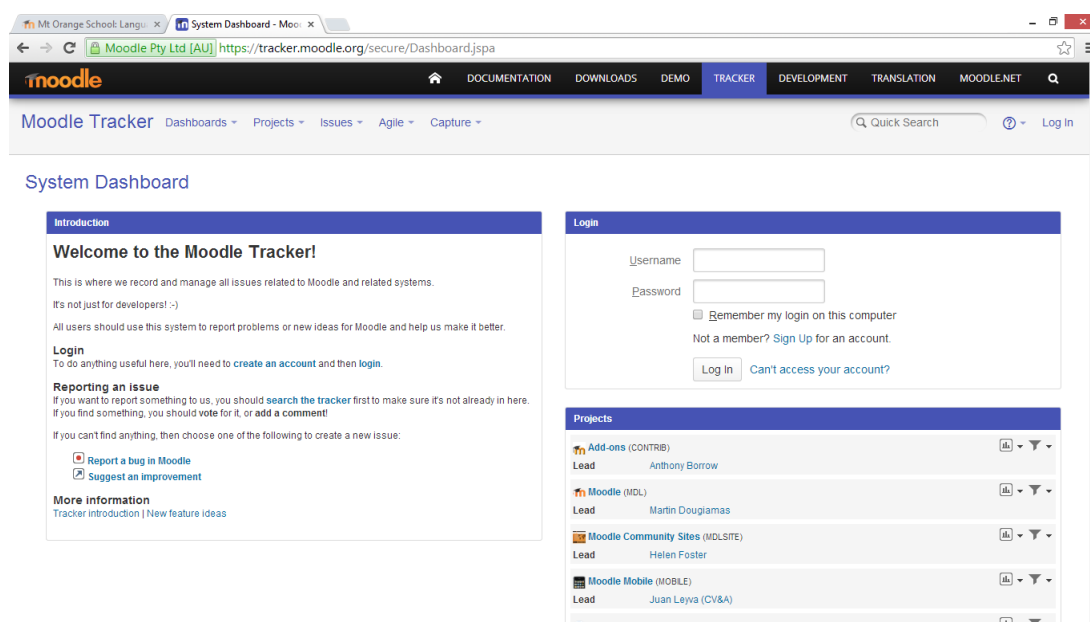
Din experiența noastră, un începător în astfel de tehnologii, va resimți experiența Moodle drept frustrantă. Deși interfața pare „user friendly”, descoperim repede că necesită cunoștințe medii de utilizare a unor softuri. În numeroase cazuri instituțiile educaționale au un administrator care se ocupă de acest sistem. Rămâne însă o problemă pentru mulți studenți nefamiliarizați cu tehnologia, unul dintre impedimentele de care am avut și noi parte.

În aceeași ordine de idei, sistemul funcționează mai bine pe sisteme de operare Linux, care încă nu sunt populare în România (dar câștigă teren întrucât sunt, la rândul lor, gratuite). Un alt neajuns este suportul tehnic. În câteva cazuri, studenții nu au reușit să își creeze un profil. Iar dacă l-au creat, nu au mai reușit să îl acceseze în următoarele ore sau zile. Platforma are posibilitatea trimiterii unei solicitări/reclamații (ticket), dar numai dacă ești logat în sistem.

Și, în fine, există o serie de reclamații cu privire la faptul că fiind un sistem gratuit, el nu este foarte bine (și în timp real) supravegheat. Acest fapt permite apariția unor conturi false de pe care se postează fie diverse reclame, fie materiale pornografice, fie unele ce ascund fișiere dăunătoare PC-ului (de regulă troieni) etc.

Promovând ideea că oricine ar trebui să aibă acces gratuit la educație Moodle rămâne una dintre soluțiile cele mai viabile, atâta timp cât studenții se obișnuiesc cu ea. Din experiența noastră, cum spuneam, aceștia au preferat alt sistem.





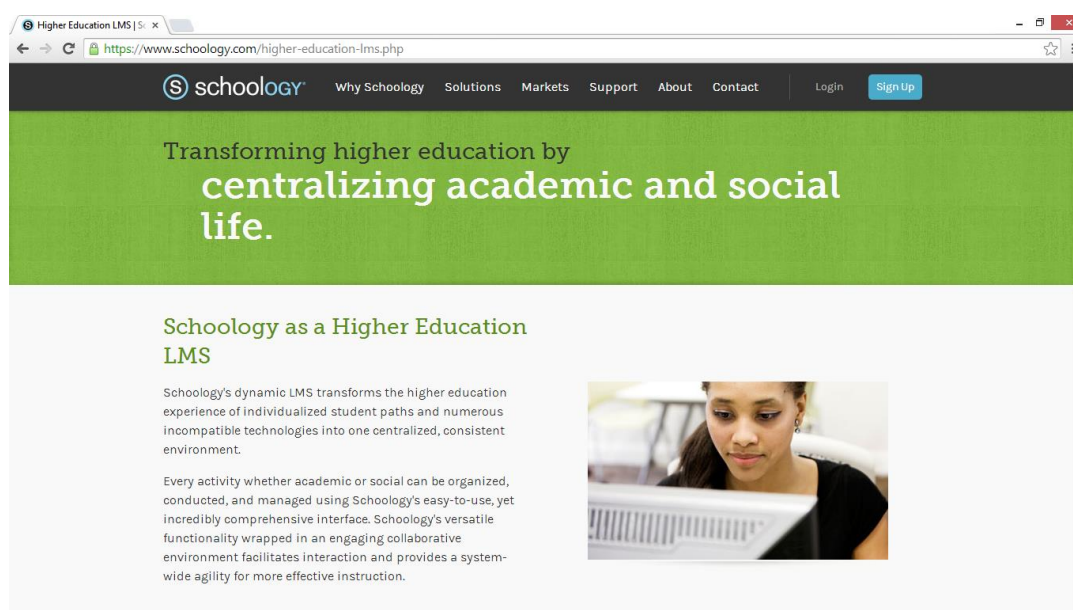
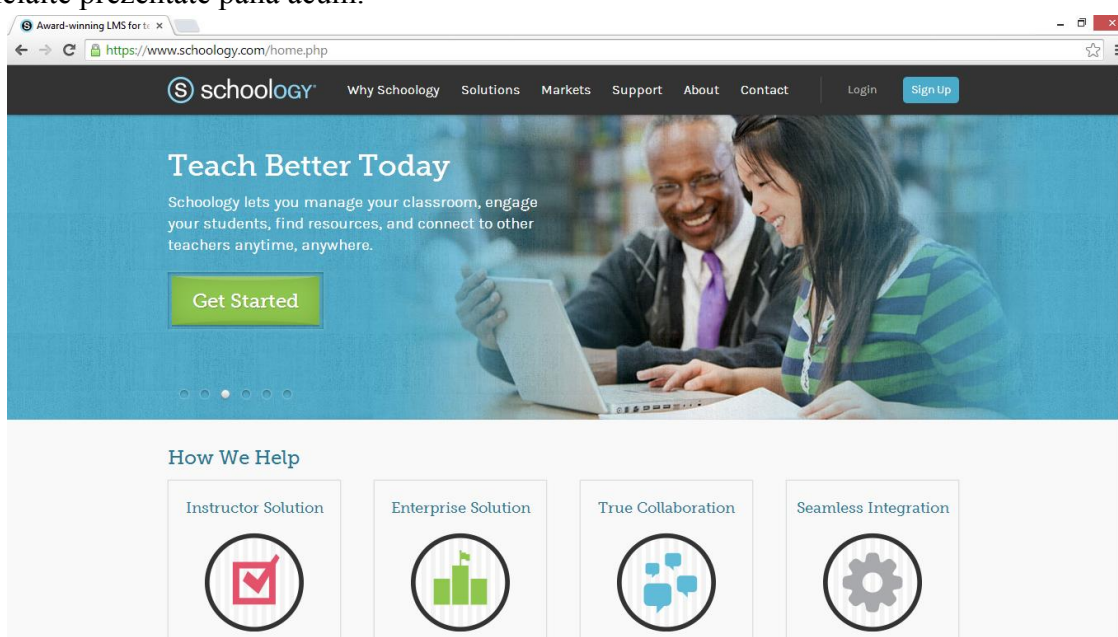
Un LMS asemănător lui Moodle este SCHOOLOGY. Acesta are pretenții de „Class Management Tool” și, în opinia noastră, le îndeplinește în mare măsură. Sistemul permite înregistrarea în calitate de instructor (educator), student / elev sau părinte. Studenții și părinții au nevoie de un cod oferit de către instructor pentru a putea accesa cursul acestuia. Profesorii pot invita studenți, părinți sau alți profesori și pot colabora pentru o mai bună desfășurare a activităților, pot realiza proiecte împreună etc. Există o pagină socială, pe care cadrele didactice pot posta diverse materiale și anunțuri, iar studenții și părinții pot doar comenta sau face aprecieri cu privire la acestea și nimic mai mult.

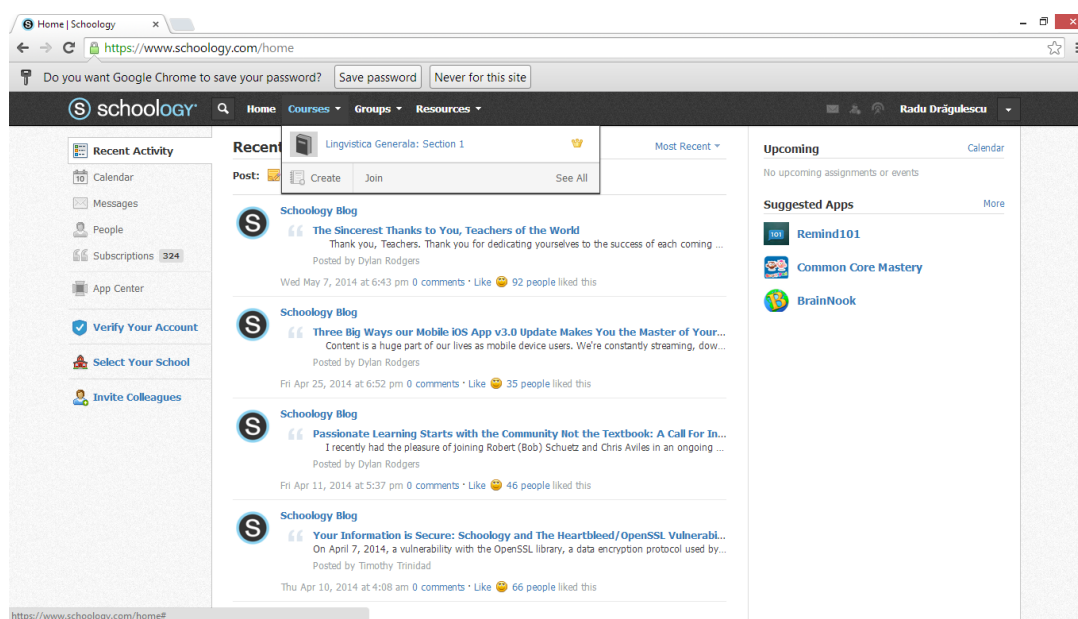
Există, de asemenea, și posibilitatea ca educatorii să acceseze și să utilizeze o serie de aplicații proprii sistemului Schoology și pot permite studenților să se folosească de respectivele aplicații în procesul de învățare.

Această platformă este gratuită, are o interfață ușor de folosit, interactivă, iar utilizarea este ușor de intuit pentru un membru care deține cunoștințe minime de operare PC. Se pot încărca și completa teste, se pot întreține discuții, se poate face schimb de materiale online etc. Sistemul poate găzdui bloguri, acestea contribuind, la rândul lor, la procesul educațional.

Instructorul poate gestiona ușor materialele, le poate organiza în dosare și le poate atașa ca atare la cursurile sale.

Din experiența noastră, acest LMS, datorită interfeței și a posibilității unei mai bune organizări a materialelor, este foarte practic, iar studenții l-au apreciat mai mult decât pe celelalte prezentate până acum.





Ultimul sistem folosit de către noi este EDMODO. Dintre platformele și softurile folosite de către noi, acesta este vedeta absolută. Dintr-un simplu motiv: interfața sa se aseamănă izbitor cu aceea a rețelei de socializare Facebook. În opinia noastră (și nu numai), pare a fi construit după modelul și principiile după care sunt constituite grupurile de pe celebra rețea. Studenții noștri au avut nevoie de câteva ore pentru a descoperi secretele acestui sistem.

Este mai simplu decât celelalte softuri încercate, este gratuit și înregistrează deja 34 de milioane de utilizatori. La avantajele enumerate mai putem adăuga un „Appstore” propriu, din care profesorul poate alege diverse aplicații pe care le consideră utile. În momentul în care le implementează în sistem, automat studenții săi se pot folosi, la rândul lor, de respectivele aplicații. De asemenea, utilizatorii pot stoca materiale direct în Google Drive, astfel încât au mereu acces la informațiile pe care le consideră importante și nu mai sunt nevoiți să poarte sticku-ri, CD-uri sau alte medii de stocare cu ei.

La fel ca în cazul Schoology, și pe Edmodo utilizatorii se pot înregistra în calitate de educatori, studenți/elevi sau părinți/tutori. Studenții și părinții au nevoie de un cod (generat de sistem și oferit de educator) pentru a putea accesa un anumit curs. O particularitate Edmodo este posibilitatea de a crea, în cadrul unei grupe participante la un curs, mai multe subgrupe. Așadar se pot realiza subgrupe de seminar sau chiar minigrupe/echipe de lucru.

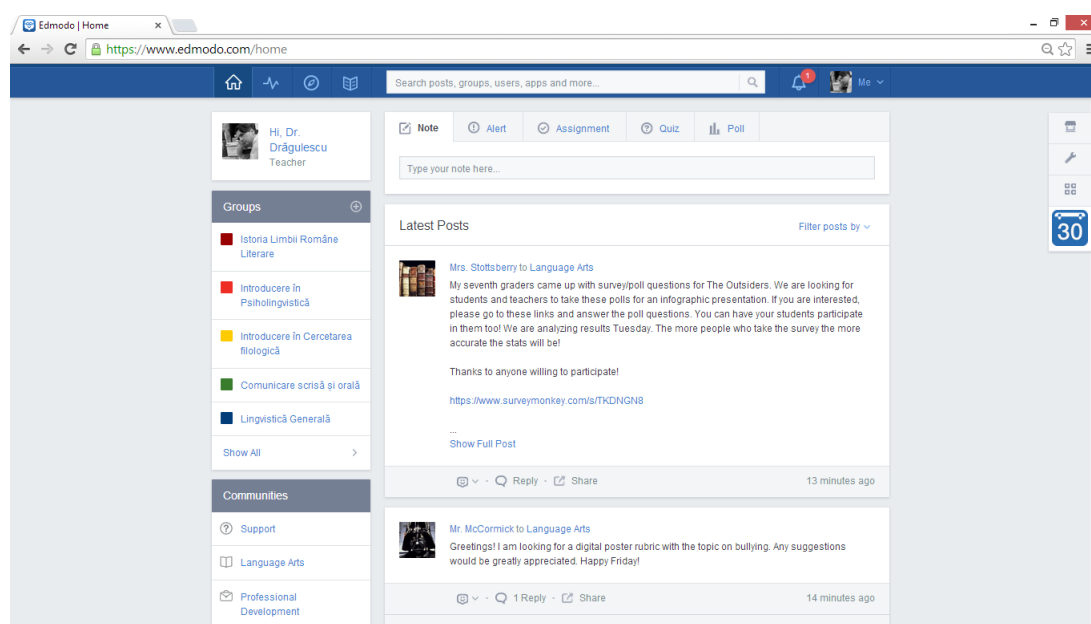
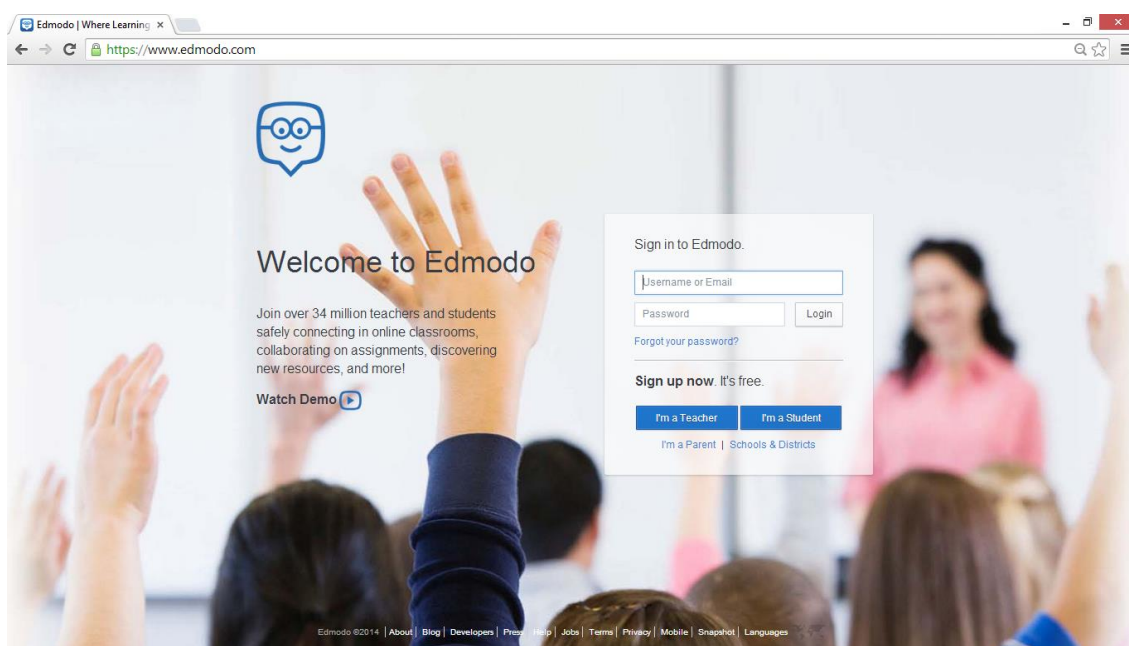
Se pot încărca și completa teste, se pot încărca sarcini (assignments), se pot oferi și completa sondaje / poll-uri, se pot crea forumuri de discuții etc. Profesorul poate limita accesul studenților la pagina socială, în sensul că poate filtra ceea ce aceștia postează sau le poate chiar refuza dreptul de a încărca materiale sau a comenta.

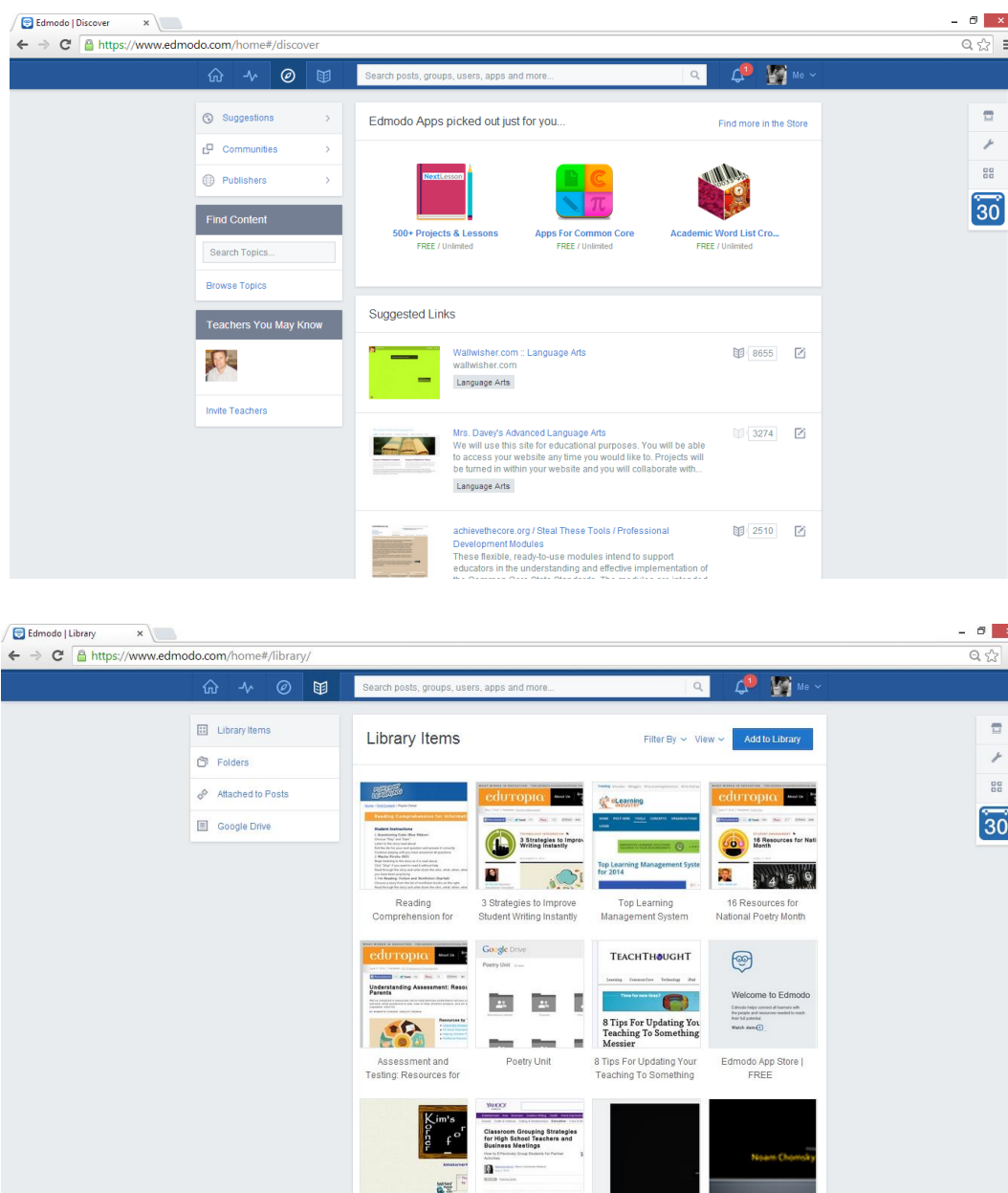
În funcție de domeniul și sfera de activitate profesorii pot stabili relații și pot constitui grupuri de discuții unde, în majoritatea cazurilor, cer sfaturi și postează fișiere cu privire la materiale și metode de predare-învățare.

Acest sistem nu este, nici el impecabil. Pe lângă faptul că lipsesc unele „accesorii” de care dispun celelalte, se întâmplă să refuze, din motive incerte, unor studenți accesul la

profilul lor. Acest impediment se rezolvă cu resetarea, de către educator (totodată administrator al grupului ce studiază disciplina sa) a parolelor studenților respectivi. De câteva ori s-a întâmplat ca site-ul să se blocheze în timpul completării testelor, dar și acestea sunt cazuri izolate, iar testul poate fi resetat și reluat individual.

Educatorul poate oferi, pentru a-i motiva, diverse insigne virtuale studenților, în funcție de abilitățile, performanțele și activitățile lor. Sistemul nu dispune de un „chat” propriu zis, dar comunicarea se realizează impecabil prin comentarii, printr-un mod asemănător, cum spuneam, cu cel de pe Facebook. Sistemul nu are interfață în limba română.



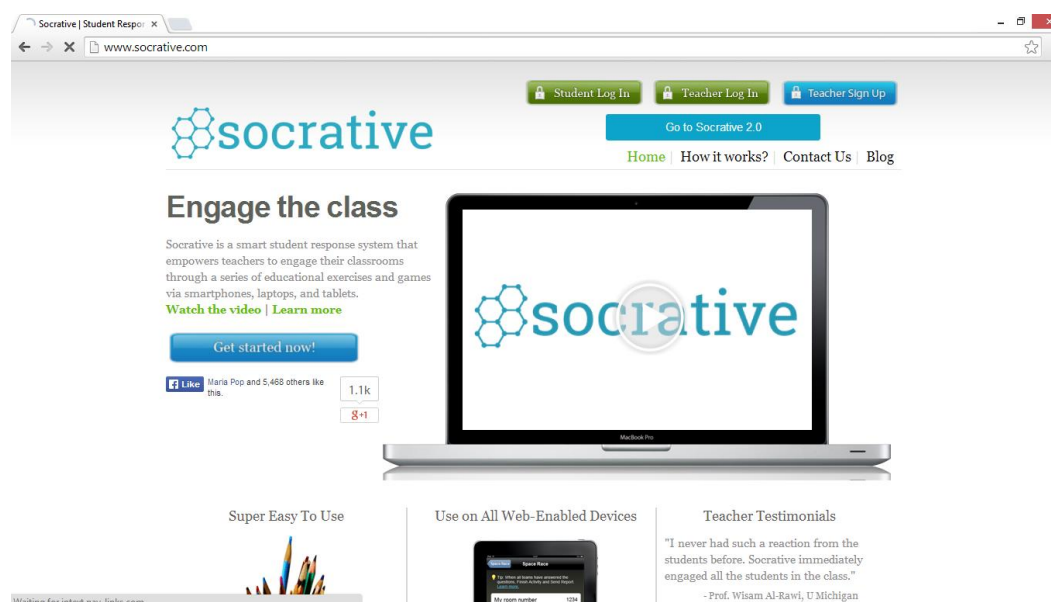


Ultima aplicație despre care vom vorbi este SOCRATIVE. Aceasta oferă posibilitatea creării unui spațiu virtual în cadrul unui spațiu real. Mai exact, educatorul și studenții se vor afla, în același timp, atât în sala de curs, cât și într-un mediu virtual și vor comunica simultan în ambele. Scopul acestei aplicații este de a-i determina pe studenții timizi, nesiguri să interacționeze cu ceilalți sau cu profesorul.

Concret, instructorul va genera de pe device-ul său, din această aplicație, un cod pe care îl vor primi studenții. Introducând acest cod pe device-urile lor vor avea acces la o „sală de curs” virtuală (room). Studenții vor rămâne anonimi în cadrul acestui spațiu. Atunci când, în timpul cursului sau al seminarului, au nelămuriri sau opinii, ei le pot adresa, în scris, în timp real, profesorului sau celorlalți participanți. Sub tutela anonimatului studenții neîncrezători, cu o stimă de sine scăzută, vor îndrăzni să pună întrebări sau să emită păreri care altfel nu ar fi fost niciodată rostite. În acest mod, profesorul primește un feedback

constructiv și mai eficient și poate conduce mai ușor firul discuțiilor sau poate reveni, dacă este cazul, asupra unor detalii neînțelese în primă fază.

Socrative este, din punctul nostru de vedere, o aplicație extrem de utilă, care, nouă personal, ne-a schimbat decisiv modul de desfășurare a activităților didactice, iar pentru mulți studenți a devenit un instrument indispensabil.



În studiul nostru am pornit de la constituirea unor grupe de studenți, în funcție de disciplinele lingvistice predate: Lingvistică generală, Comunicare scrisă și orală și Introducere în Cercetarea Filologică la anul I, Istoria limbii literare, la anul al doilea, Introducere în Psiholingvistică la anul al treilea. De departe, studenții anului I au fost cei mai deschiși în adoptarea și utilizării acestor softuri, pe când cei mai reticenți au fost cei din anul al treilea, obișnuiți, considerăm noi, mai mult cu variantele tradiționale de predare.

Studenții au primit sarcini (assignments) săptămânale, de regulă realizarea pe echipe de lucru a unor scurte prezentări de 5-7, maxim 10 minute, cu privire la anumite subiecte. De exemplu, pentru Lingvistică generală, prezentarea dihotomiei saussuriene semnificat-semnificant sau a desemnării, semnificației și sensului din teoria coșeriană etc. Studenții pornesc de la un material oferit de către noi, la care adăugă informații dobândite din alte surse.

De asemenea, studenții au primit săptămânal câte un test conținând 10 întrebări cu multiple variante de răspuns, test valabil pe durata a 36 de ore, dar a cărui completare este limitată la 20 de minute, odată ce a fost accesat. Aceste teste s-au vrut a fi nu atât o modalitate de evaluare cât o modalitate de învățare.

În fine, studenții au fost invitați la discuții care s-au desfășurat mai mult decât satisfăcător pe toată durata semestrului și nu numai în sală, la activitățile de curs și seminar. De regulă, discuțiile din mediul online au fost mai incitante decât cele din sală și au participat mai mulți studenți.

Cercetând implicațiile mediilor virtuale și a tehnologiei în predarea disciplinelor lingvistice observațiile demne de luat în seamă sunt:

1. Spre deosebire de anii în care nu am folosit aceste softuri, a crescut considerabil interesul, apetența pentru aceste discipline. Din sondajele noastre a urcat cu 36 % plăcerea de a studia.
2. Promovabilitatea la examene a crescut în medie cu 38%, în principal datorită faptului că LMS permit o mai fidelă monitorizare și evaluare a activităților desfășurate de-a lungul semestrelor și pentru că permit, la timp, revenirea asupra unor subiecte pe care studenții nu le-au înțeles sau le-au înțeles greșit.
3. Gradul de satisfacție a studenților este îmbunătățit, întrucât își pot vedea proiectele realizate afișate pe „wall”, evaluarea fiecărei activități în parte și primesc feedback.
4. Studenții cu diverse probleme, fie de integrare/adaptare, fie de sănătate, fie de altă natură, pot participa activ și eficient la activitățile didactice.
5. Au crescut gradul de creativitate și capacitățile de analiză și sinteză ale studenților.
6. Am observat o îmbunătățire a comunicării între studenți (întrucât mulți preferă să își scrie opiniile și nu să le rostească de față cu alții) și a muncii în echipă (sau pe grupe) și o diluare a „biserițelor”.
7. Din 110 studenți, 3 nu au acces la internet, iar unul a refuzat (din motive necunoscute nouă) să se folosească de tehnologie. Din cei care dețin smartphones, doar 24 % le utilizează și în alte scopuri decât telefonat, jucat, vizionat filmulețe și transmis mesaje (SMS sau pe rețele de socializare). Am realizat și un sondaj cu privire la sistemele de operare folosite, dar care nu este relevant pentru acest studiu.
8. 12 % dintre studenți preferă varianta tradițională de predare, tip prelegere și să nu fie implicați cu nimic.
9. Același procent (și, probabil, din același motiv ca cel de la punctul 8) constituie categoria de studenți care se „inspiră” din materialele colegilor, realizând, pur și simplu, colaje din informațiile oferite de către ceilalți.
10. Nivelul de cunoaștere a lucrărilor din lista bibliografică a crescut, în medie, cu 600 %.

În concluzie, odată cu utilizarea tehnologiei în procesul educațional, am resimțit, în primul rând, o creștere a interesul pentru studiu (care, e drept, scade ulterior în cazul câtorva studenți, dar sunt cazuri izolate: 4 din 110). Am observat o îmbunătățire a comunicării dintre studenți, aceștia scriu vrând nevrând mai mult și mai îngrijit decât ar fi făcut-o în alte condiții, iar eventualele erori de redactare sau de exprimare sunt corectate de către colegi sau de noi - încă un plus educațional.

Un alt avantaj a fost integrarea în comunitate a studenților care, din diverse motive (medicale, emoționale, sociale, economice etc.) nu pot frecventa cursurile. În opinia noastră, acesta este cel mai important câștig. În repetate rânduri studenți care au participat la cursuri sau seminare doar de două-trei ori au realizat prezentări foarte bune, au răspuns exemplar la întrebările din teste și au exprimat opinii pertinente cu fiecare ocazie. Unii dintre acești

studenți, cu rezultate slabe la alte discipline, au obținut rezultate bune și chiar foarte bune la disciplinele noastre. Am identificat o serie de studenți cu nevoi speciale, atât în sens pozitiv cât și în sens negativ. Unii dintre ei sunt foarte bine pregătiți și s-ar plictisi în condițiile în care ceilalți ar avea dificultăți de înțelegere a materialului predat.

Trebuie să ținem seama și de modul în care fiecare student în parte învață mai ușor (vizual, auditiv etc.). Învățarea, educația se realizează atunci când studenții sunt pregătiți să o primească. Unii studenți învață mai repede, alții au nevoie de o perioadă mai îndelungată de timp pentru a dobândi și procesa informația. Unii se descurcă mult mai ușor cu conceptele decât ceilalți. Sunt activi la perioade diferite din zi sau din noapte.

Unele softuri de tip LMS oferă un calcul exact al rezultatelor studenților și evaluarea poate câștiga un nivel înalt de obiectivitate. Pot indica timpul care a trecut de la ultima logare a unui student, numărul de logări, numărul de postări, timpul pe care îl petrece în sistem. Pot indica trendul de natură emoțională cu privire la disciplina respectivă (în funcție de reacțiile celor care postează). Datorită calendarului integrat permit studentului o mai bună gestionare a activităților de peste zi, săptămână sau semestru. Îi reamintesc ce are de făcut și termenele limită. De asemenea, oferă acces la diverse baze de date sau biblioteci și au integrat un sistem antiplagiat care verifică originalitatea materialelor postate de către participanții la procesul educațional.

În mediul virtual am reușit eficient să acordăm atenție și să lucrăm cu fiecare dintre studenți, e drept acest demers necesitând din partea noastră, în medie, 6 ore pe zi (inclusiv la sfârșitul săptămânii).

Principalele neajunsuri ale acestor sisteme sunt, în principal, dependența de internet, de un device sau altul și de o sursă de energie, toate constituind însă probleme minore în România zilelor noastre. Tehnologia și platformele educaționale virtuale reprezintă, în opinia noastră, un real succes atunci când sunt utilizate ca un suport, un ajutor în activitățile didactice și nu trebuie neapărat privite drept un înlocuitor al procesului educațional tradițional.

WEBOGRAFIE:

<http://brainly.ro/>

<http://www.blackboard.com/platforms/learn/overview.aspx>

<https://moodle.org/>

<https://www.schoolology.com/home>

<https://www.edmodo.com/home>

<http://www.socrative.com>

PREPARING STUDENTS FOR REAL MEDICAL INTERACTIONS – FUNCTIONAL DESIGN OF A LOW BUDGET SKILLS

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Abstract: Aims: to implement, in academic medical teaching, a design of learning relaying mostly on peers education and capable to train students from the first year of study in basic medical skills. Method: reviewing the updated literature, adapted to the local existent conditions, strongly based on scientific medical evidence, it was conceived a teaching system, in a patient holistic approach, using low budget resources, Results and Discussions: a book of protocols was conceived as a learning working tool, a skills center was organized and didactic dummies were developed using low cost solutions. Available human resources were organized in a peers system of education for a maximal efficiency of a "do – receive – assess – feedback – teach - coach" concept of education. Conclusions: the described system of peer's educational involvement had succeeded to create a functional working based learning environment, using low budget and limited human resources.

Keywords: clinical skills, feedback, peer, low budget, simulation

Students benefits most from medical teaching they are directly involved in. [2] For a student, the best learning situation is to be engaged in a direct medical maneuver with a real patient that have the medical problem aimed to be studied, while being closely coordinated by a specialized teacher. [5, 7] This condition is very difficult to be reached in a real academic life, where there are limited numbers of patients, them diseases not always matching with the medical disorder scheduled to be learned at the specific curricular moment. It is also difficult, for a university, to pay as much teachers as needed in order to have a one to one teacher-student relationship, an individual learning process in which one teacher to taught only one student, once. [4]

By simulating medical conditions and employing didactic dummies, parts of these impediments can be over passed. Configuring a simulated teaching environment can be very expensive but satisfying solutions can be obtained even with low budgets. The biggest challenge is to create a system in which all the taught students to be involved in academic activities at every moment of the whole duration of a class, by performing a learning effort in any of this time. [10, 11] A teaching structure designed not only to present to students aspects from medicine but a place in which it is facilitated for them to do things, to practice, is considered to be the design of choice for a skills center. While performing the activities, students need to be coordinated and evaluated, by this receiving a feedback on them performances. In terms of educational impact, a system of teaching relaying on feedback is proved to have the highest efficiency. A design of an academic system will also benefit if it will have implemented in it the concept of "see one, do one, teach one". By this, in his education, each student will need to have a designated period in which to have the opportunity to present to his colleagues some of the maneuvers he had learned and also to coach them how to use the structure of learning that the skills center implies.

At the Faculty of Medicine, the University of Medicine and Pharmacy "Gr. T. Popa" of Iași, starting with the first semester of the year 2011-2012, for the first time in Romania,

medical students have in their curricula a mandatory practical module for training in basic nursing skills. The goal was that the students from the first year of study to achieve the minimal but also sufficient amount of skills that will allow them to properly practice in a medical ward. The idea was to implement, in the teaching system of a medical university, a design of learning relaying mostly on peers education.

Method:

In order to acquire skills, students need to have access to an appropriate documentation, the informations contained in the documentation to be properly explained to them and to have the possibility to effectively practice the learned knowledges in appropriate environments.

For the design of documentation two issues were assessed: the list of basic skills necessary to be acquired and the shape in which these knowledges to be presented.

The skills selected to be taught were thought to respond to necessities that can be structured in three main categories: ♦skills without the acquisition of which the safety of the patients will be jeopardized; ♦the prestige of the white coat will be jeopardized; ♦students involvement in the performance of the most frequently realized maneuvers of medical activity will be jeopardized.

The book containing the necessary knowledges for the students should have a design allowing not only to expose informations but also to offer a tool for them work at the skills center.

The explanations provided in the book should be individualized in the body of the text, provided as photos and also as videos, in an attached DVD.

The possibility to effectively practice the learned knowledges requires completion of three organizational aspects: establishment of an appropriate skills center, constituting a network of didactic dummies and performing a good management of available human resources.

Results

16 skills were selected as a minimal portfolio feasible to be taught to first year medical students, considered to assure a sufficient background of knowledges and level of training in order to allow them access, for basic activities, in the real medical world. Figure 1

jeopardize the patient safety	jeopardize "white coat" prestige	jeopardize the efficiency of "bed side" university activity
1. medical wash of hands	6. blood pressure measurement	9. supported bed positions
2. chest compressions	7. capillary glycemia measurement	10. ambulation
3. recovery position	8. peak expiratory flow measurement	11. ECG
4. Heimlich maneuver		12. venipuncture
5. oxygeno therapy		13. gluteal i.m.
		14. deltoid i.m.
		15. arm s.c.
		16. oral therapy administration

Figure 1 List of skills considered as minimal requirement and also sufficient to allow students to medically interact with patients

Medical hand washing with either water and soap or alcohol-based solutions, learning the medical procedures necessary for emergency situations, such as cardiorespiratory arrest, aspiration of laryngotracheal foreign bodies („choking with food”) oxygen therapy via nasal cannula have been associated, in the proposed training, to the skills needed for some basic medical activities such as: noninvasive arterial blood pressure measurement, electrocardiographic recording; capillary glycemia measurement; venous blood specimen collection; patient’s medical positioning in bed and them ambulation; administration of solid or liquid oral medication, administration of inhaled medication, measurement of peak expiratory flow; subcutaneous injection; ventrogluteal intramuscular injection or deltoid intramuscular injection.

These 16 procedures reflect in a good percentage the activity that can be found in a medical ward. It is routinely performed to draw blood specimens, record an electrocardiogram, administer medication – orally, intramuscularly on ventrogluteal or in deltoid site in case of vaccines, subcutaneous for insulin or fractionated heparins, while patients, in a ward, have to be positioned in beds or assisted in ambulation.

By reviewing the updated literature [1, 3, 6, 9], based on scientific medical evidence, for each selected procedure a specific protocol was conceived as a sequence of steps necessary to be followed, in a patient holistic approach. [8] Paragraphs describing the actions that have to be undertaken have a different format (regular fonts) from those of dialogues (bold) or explanations (smaller italic fonts). Figure 2.

	0	1	P
1. Rapid evaluation of the presence of vital signs (<i>state of consciousness, movements, speech, breathing</i>) (<i>Vital functions maintained 2; cardiorespiratory arrest 2</i>) Good afternoon. My name is I am the doctor/nurse who will examine you today.			0 1 5
2. Wash hands + Put on clean medical gloves (<i>only in the event of tegumentary lesions of the examiner's hands or of an infectious potential of the patient</i>) as part of standard precautions			0 1 3
3. Can you, please, tell me your name and your date of birth Thank you (<i>Conformity with the observation sheet for Name 2 - Date of birth 2</i>) Ensure a private space for examination (<i>single bed ward, curtain, screen, etc.</i>) Measurement of arterial pressure, pulse oximetry, thermometry - <i>if there hasn't been a recent evaluation</i> Arterial pressure: mmHg, SaO2: % Temperature: °C			0 1 6
4. We shall register your heart electrical activity, meaning the electrocardiogram, by means of a specialised device – the electrocardiograph. (<i>explanation of the actions to be taken</i>)			0 1 3
5. This is a manoeuvre which will require you to lie on your back so as to enable us to attach a connector to your chest, wrists and joints of your legs. We shall not cut or prick. The entire examination should not last more than a few minutes (<i>explain what the manoeuvre consists of</i>)			0 1 3
6. It is highly recommended that your clothing allows us to easily place the registration connectors (<i>for you to be able to easily remove your clothes at the level of your chest, wrists and joints of your legs</i>) For this examination there is no need for you to avoid eating or taking your current medication. It is recommended that you go to the toilet before the examination so as to avoid potential surprises. It is very important that you are relaxed and calm during the examination (<i>explain how the patient can be of help when carrying out the measurement</i>)			0 1 3
7. Your electrocardiogram is an important investigation in order to evaluate your medical condition, which is a standard of evaluation for the majority of patients. Depending on it, we shall decide on the medication that we can or cannot recommend. (<i>explain why the examination to be carried out is useful for the patient</i>)			0 1 3
8. Evaluation of the patient: - check-up: thoracic hairiness (<i>hairiness removal / using the precordial electrode strip instead of action -saw</i>) and possible tegumentary lesions at the level of the arms or ankles (burns, etc.) - Have you got pains in your chest? Do you feel your heart is not beating regularly? - (<i>assessment of symptoms (anterior thoracic pain, palpitations), blood pressure values</i>)			0 1 3
9. The transportation of the patient to ECG (wheelchair – <i>if the patient suffers from thoracic pain, dyspnoea or has locomotor problems</i>) or of the electrocardiograph to the patient (<i>check the status of the accumulators, ground socket</i>) Conditions for the ECG room: a temperature of 22 ± 2°C Registration of the patient in the ECG register			0 1 3
10. Please remove any items of clothing from your chest, wrists and ankles. Expose the body parts where we shall attach the connectors (<i>the electrodes</i>)			0 1 3
11. Place the patient in dorsal decubitus (<i>any other kind of positioning shall be mentioned on the ECG</i>) Adjust the bed so as to reach a level that the doctor / the nurse will find comfortable for performing their activities (<i>usually a level as high as their waist</i>)			0 1 3

Figure 2 Example of a protocol design (recording electrocardiogram)

Every protocol have a system of points for each constituting step: 3 or higher in case of a good performance of the step, 0 in case of a lack in execution of the step and 1 point in case of an incomplete fulfilling of the step or a good performance but not at the correct moment during the protocol. Figure 3

12	Clean the areas where the electrodes shall be placed	0	1	2	3			
13	Place the electrodes by making use of electrode gel: Red + gel: right forearm, electrode on the muscle/options – which shall be mentioned, in this case, on the ECG	0	1	2	3			
14	Yellow + gel: left forearm, electrode on the muscle/ options – which shall be mentioned, in this case, on the ECG	0	1	2	3			
15	Green + gel: left calf, electrode on the muscle/ options – which shall be mentioned, in this case, on the ECG	0	1	2	3			
16	Black + gel: right calf, electrode on the muscle/ options – which shall be mentioned, in this case, on the ECG	0	1	2	3			
17	Palpate the sternum in craniocaudal fashion (from top to bottom) by sliding the pulp of fingers 2, 3, and 4 along the sternum so as to identify the sternal angle – the angle of Louis	0	1	2	3			
18	Laterally slide the pulp of fingers 2 and 3 along the right intercostal space corresponding to this reference point – right second intercostal space	0	1	2	3			
19	Maintain finger number 2 at the level of the second intercostal space, slide in caudal fashion (downwards) with the pulp of finger number 3 and palpate across the width of the third rib right underneath it – third intercostal space	0	1	2	3			
20	Use finger number 2 to reach the level of the identified space and then slide in caudal fashion (downwards) with the pulp of finger number 3 and palpate across the width of the fourth rib underneath it – fourth intercostal space	0	1	2	3			
21	Place the electrodes by making use of electrode gel: V1 + gel: right fourth intercostal space, parasternal space	0	1	2	3			
22	V2 + gel: left fourth intercostal space, parasternal space	0	1	2	3			
23	Maintain finger number 2 at the level of the left fourth intercostal space, slide in caudal fashion (downwards) with the pulp of finger number 3 and palpate across the width of the fourth rib – fifth intercostal space	0	1	2	3			
24	Visually detect the left midclavicular line. Laterally slide fingers 2 and 3 along the fifth intercostal space until their junction with the left midclavicular line.	0	1	2	3			
25	V4 + gel: left fifth intercostal space, left midclavicular line	0	1	2	3			
26	V5 + gel: horizontal line of V4 – junction with the anterior axillary line	0	1	2	3			
27	V6 + gel: horizontal line of V4 – junction with mid axillary line	0	1	2	3			
28	V3 + gel: mid distance between V2 and V4	0	1	2	3			
29	Turn on the electrocardiograph	0	1	2	3			
30	Introduce the patient's personal data in the electrocardiograph programme	0	1	2	3			
31	Electrocardiographic imaging – "automatic" mode	0	1	2	3			
32	ECG evaluation from the point of view of the quality of the registration: • ECG tracing – activate filters (only if the repositioning of the electrodes, the improvement of the contact, the gel, the improvement of muscle relaxation were not efficient) • Superposition of ECG directions – repeat the procedure after modifying the 1 mV = 5 mm equivalence • ECG direction with low amplitude – repeat the procedure after modifying the 1 mV = 20 mm equivalence	0	1	2	3			
33	Evaluate the ECG as far as pathology related aspects are concerned: Look for: • negative waves (S) at the beginning of QRS complexes at DII, DIII, aVF • repeat the ECG "manually" by asking the patient to breathe in deeply • ultra high / ultra low level oscillation of ST • in each case, inform the doctor while the patient is under ECG monitoring • rhythm – fast: 100-150/min • slow: 40-60/min • if less than 40/min – inform the doctor while the patient is under ECG monitoring • irregular / "normal" registration by adjusting the speed from 25 mm/sec to 10 mm/sec	0	1	2	3			
34	Turn off the electrocardiograph	0	1	2	3			
35	Disconnect the connectors (the electrodes) and remove the gel (by using dry tissues first and then pads dipped in alcoholic solutions so as to wipe the area) from the patient's tegument	0	1	2	3			
36	"Pack" electrodes without overbending the connecting wires	0	1	2	3			
37	You can now put your clothes on. If the electrocardiogram is carried out at the patient's bed: One needs to ensure the patient's safety (adjust the bed at an inferior height level, lifting the lateral limiters) and to make sure he/she can easily reach his/her personal objects (e.g. mobile phone, book, crossword puzzle, etc.), the glass of water and the remote control for dialling the medical service. We are going to perform (e.g. an abdominal ultrasound) in approximately minutes. (give details about the following medical schedule and the time when the patient shall be reexamined).	0	1	2	3			
38	Write down on the ECG: the blood pressure value, known pathologies, previously administered medication, consumption of coffee and tobacco	0	1	2	3			
39	Present the ECG documents to the attendant / patient, ensure the patient's transportation back to the ward	0	1	2	3			
40	Remove the gel (by using dry tissues and then by cleaning the area with sanitary alcohol) from the electrodes (registering connectors)	0	1	2	3			
Total score: 200					1	2	3	%
					2	3	%	%
					3	%	%	%

Legend: 0 – unfulfilled criterion; 1 – partially fulfilled criterion; 3 or above – completely fulfilled criterion

Legend: 0 – unfulfilled criterion; 1 – partially fulfilled criterion; 3 or above – completely fulfilled criterion (according to column 7)

Figure 3 Scoring systems in an example of a protocol (recording electrocardiogram)

These 16 protocols were gathered in a book conceived to have a system of transparent sheets that can be placed over each page of the desired protocol so the points obtained at each step to be noted on the transparent using a nonpermanent marker. The sum of points can be calculated and expressed as percentage from the maximal score, feedback discussions undertaken and after completing all that, the made annotations to be erased by simply using a tissue and by this the protocol to become ready for a new evaluation. It results in an effective tool in the student effort for learning. Figure 4



Figure 4 Design of the book, with arches that allow a system of transparent sheets that can be placed over any page of a desired protocol, annotation with a nonpermanent marker to be made and the protocol recuperated after that by simply erasing the writings that were done, using a tissue

A special section of the book, located at the end of it consist in carbonless evaluation forms used at the assessment of the student, in order to assure the objectiveness of the evaluation and a feedback of it. After performing the protocol that was selected for assessment, the evaluator signs the carbonless sheets and keeps only the first white page. By this, a copy of the evaluating remains at the student, which is capable to understand the mark, recognize the mistakes of his performance or to call them into question if it is the case. Figure 5

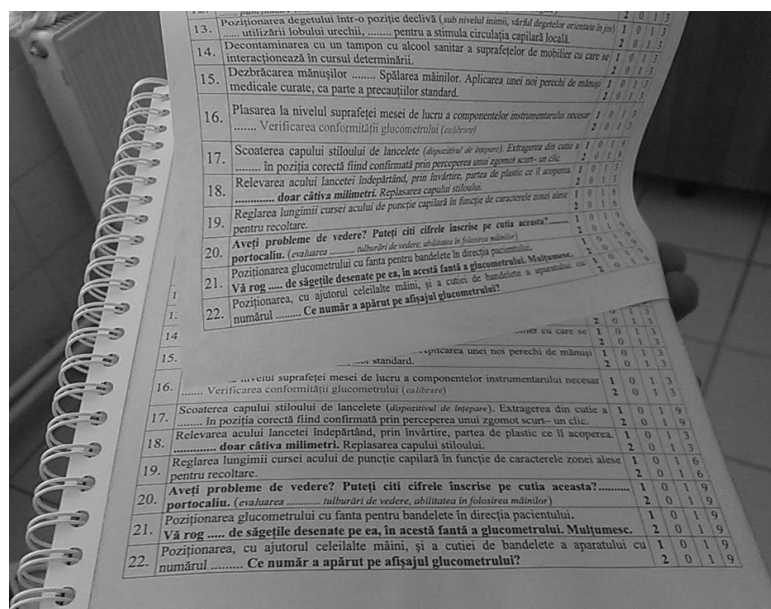


Figure 5 Carbonless evaluation forms at the final section of the book used as a tool in the activity of a skills center.

The didactic activity for skills acquisition uses a system in which teams of three students each perform the protocols from the curricula. Two hours are assigned as learning time for two protocols. Each two teams receive a presentation of two maneuvers in a period of 30 minutes (15 minutes per each protocol to be presented) and after that they practice each protocol in 45 minutes (30 min. + 45 min. + 45 min. = 2 hours). In 45 minutes, the three students composing a team, shift postures from executer of the maneuver (15 min.) to receiver of the protocol (15 min.) and to evaluator on how the protocol was performed (15 min.), using the book as a tool. The protocol is assumed to be performed in 10 – 12 minutes and the remaining 3 – 5 minutes are used for feedback. This period of time is asserted for discussions on the percentage in which the protocol was correctly executed, where points were lost, what good aspects are to be highlighted. All these three postures are considered to add specific value in the learning process in which the student is engaged. Figure 6.



Figure 6. Postures of the students during training in groups of three at the skills center: performing the protocol; receiving the protocol; evaluating how the protocol is performed

The necessary explanations are offered using a peer system of learning in which, after 21 hours of training, students are considered instructed and have to present two pre-established maneuvers to colleagues of them which already start them activity at the skill center. By doing so, they complete them learning with a component of teaching, in a didactic concept of “see one – do one – teach one”. It results in an optimal solution for providing presentations, coaching and an efficient management of human resources. For coordinators will be, by this, capable to maintain a working status for 48 + 8 students in a unit of time of two hours, at the skills center. Figure 7

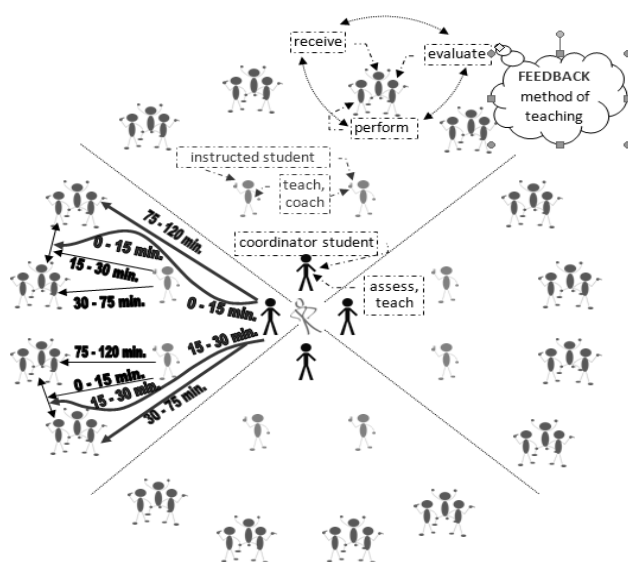


Figure 7. Schedule of students peers activity, at Skills Center, during a 2 hours unit of time

Explanations are also provided in the book as relevant photos and as movies gather in a DVD attached to the book. Figure 8



Figure 8 Patient medical positioning in bed – explained as photos

In terms of an appropriate skills center and constituting a network of didactic dummies, at the University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Gr. T. Popa” Iasi workstations have been created for each protocol. The beginning was represented by the attribution of a large room (around 100 square meters) for the new skills center, in which 4 previously quashed hospital beds and cabinets were brought by donation from an clinic hospital, to our university, minimally repaired and repainted with individual efforts. Figure 9



Figure 9 Images from the skills center of the University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Gr. T.

Popa” Iasi, with stations in which teams of three students works (execute, receive and evaluate), in order to train themselves in protocols from basic medical activity

Medical models simulating hip and deltoid, subcutaneous injection sites, venous blood specimen collections dummies were realized by individual efforts using gypsum bandages processed as casts to represent the bones and brown sanitary silicone to represent the muscles or the subcutaneous tissue and the skin, urinary catheters to simulate veins. Inside the silicone and cast, a capsule connected to an external plastic tube was inserted at the expected site of a correct puncture technique so the injected solution to appear in the tube in case of a good performance of the protocol. An empty tank of carbon dioxide previously used for welding, donated from individuals to the skills center, was covered with a white coat and used at the oxigenotherapy training station. A medication cabinet was also improvised, sweetener pills used as solid medication, syrup for simulating liquid medication, salt as medication powder replacer, to be dissolved for intramuscular injections, placed in used antibiotic glass bottles. A sphygmomanometer, a stethoscope, an observation sheet and

a red color pen were used for blood pressure measurement station. Pillows, two blankets, a belt from leather, peakflowmeters, liquid soap, paper towels, were also provided from individual efforts. A quashed electrocardiograph was minimally refurbished. A full body mannequin for cloths presentation donated by individuals was partially sectioned at under the breasts level and a box spring was inserted underneath the center of the chest to allow a 5 cm depth chest compressions training. Using a deflated ball placed in an elastic abdominal corset, the training for choking situation had became possible. Blankets allowed training for the recovery positioning. A glucometer, donated by a colleague from diabetes specialty was associated by the constant supply, by the university, with the necessary lancets and test strips. Syringes, needles, sterile gauzes were also supplied, from the beginning, by the university.

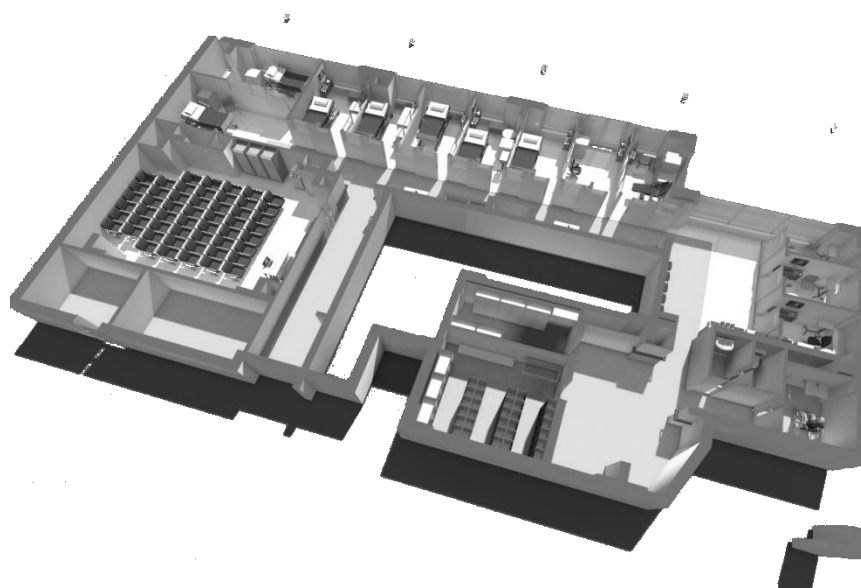


Figure 10 Overview on architectural plans of the new Skills Center building of the University of Medicine and Pharmacy “Gr. T. Popa” Iasi

Conclusions

It's a curricular model well accepted by students, conceptually based on peer's educational involvement that managed to create an efficient working academic environment using low budget and few human resources. This enthusiastic activity had convinced academic authorities to approve for 2013 an investment in a new building for the Skills Center, with all the necessary equipments. Figure 10

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT. BABEȘ-BOLYAI UNIVERSITY OF CLUJ-NAPOCA – AN EXAMPLE OF GOOD PRACTICE IN TEACHING BUSINESS ENGLISH

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Abstract: The purpose of this article is to identify the main skills required by the employers in the framework of the 2020 European Entrepreneurship plan. After a brief presentation of the current European situation, of Europe 2020 strategy and of the main foreign direct investments in Romania, the authors focus on the language skills of students, skills that are extremely important for the personal and professional development of any future employee or entrepreneur. Their purpose is to show how linguistic skills can improve the professional perspectives of young graduates and entrepreneurs, using the case of Babeș-Bolyai University as an example of good practice in teaching foreign languages and endowing students with language skills.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, linguistic skills, employability, foreign direct investments, labour market

Introduction

In today's globalised world, young people are not encouraged to start their own business due to both the absence of business knowledge and the lack of start-up capital necessary for the setting up of a business. Young people lack motivation, which is often the 'engine' of a successful business. They also lack the necessary start-up capital, and most of the times the access to funding is expensive and bureaucratic. Furthermore, young people feel (and most of the times, they are right!) they are not trained to form an entrepreneurial mentality. Most young people complain about the fact that the current educational system does not offer support in understanding and knowing the reality of the current economy.

From a motivational point of view, young people are rather drawn to finding a job within a company than to starting their own business. The fear of failure, their lack of experience, as well as the absence of viable role models are the factors that replace the motivation of starting their own business with that of finding a stable and well-paid job.

The purpose of this article is to find solutions to the above-mentioned problems, to show what can be done in order to provide students with linguistic skills, to promote their language abilities, to better prepare them for a more internationalised labour market. In this context, we will have a look at change the current state of things and at the action initiated by the European Union for 2020, to which Romania adhered. The purpose of this European action, adopted for all twenty-eight member states, is to deliver 'smart, sustainable and

inclusive growth’¹. We will also have a look at the Romanian labour market, to see what it offers to young graduates and, therefore, to show how better linguistic skills could improve their opportunities to find a job.

Europe 2020 Strategy and The Entrepreneurship Action Plan 2020

The targets of these 2020 strategies focus on five main domains, namely: employment, research and development, climate change and energy sustainability, education, as well as fighting poverty and social exclusion.

Employment and education go hand in hand. The purpose of the strategy in the field of education is to reduce school abandonment below 10% and to increase the percentage of people over 30 who graduate a tertiary education institution. Furthermore, if Romania reduces the percentage of school abandonment, the population will be better prepared for the labour market, and they will have greater chances to find a job – therefore, the employability rate will increase. Otherwise said, ‘educational improvements help employability and reduce poverty’².

Given the current state of market internationalisation, it is highly important for young people who want to find a good job or to set up their own business to have the possibility to communicate with other entrepreneurs, if not to find foreign business partners, at least to learn from their experience. Competitiveness is highly important and can be seen as an asset in the personal or professional development of an entrepreneur. Every market is different and, therefore, every experience brings new information that could be used to improve the young entrepreneur’s knowledge or to help them develop their business, to bring fresh air in the domestic market. Experience creates ‘real-world entrepreneurs’.

Overview of the Romanian Labour Market

Our economy started its development after the revolution of 1989, after the collapse of the communist regime, and was characterised by instability and an increase in the number of unemployed persons. The period 2000-2008 was characterised by economic strengthening, which can be seen in the improvement of the business environment and the positive attitude of the foreign partners that resulted in direct foreign investments. The Romanian National Bank (BNR) published, in 2013, the data regarding the direct foreign investments from 2003 until 2012. The results show an obvious increase in the direct investments made by foreign companies in our country, from 1,946 million euro in 2003 to 2,138 million euro at the end of 2012. Even though the flow of direct foreign investments in 2012 increased by 17.8% as compared to the previous year, the flow of direct investments is still considerably low if we compare it to the flows in 2006-2009.

¹http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/europe-2020-in-a-nutshell/priorities/index_en.htm, 04/03/2014.

²*Ibidem*.

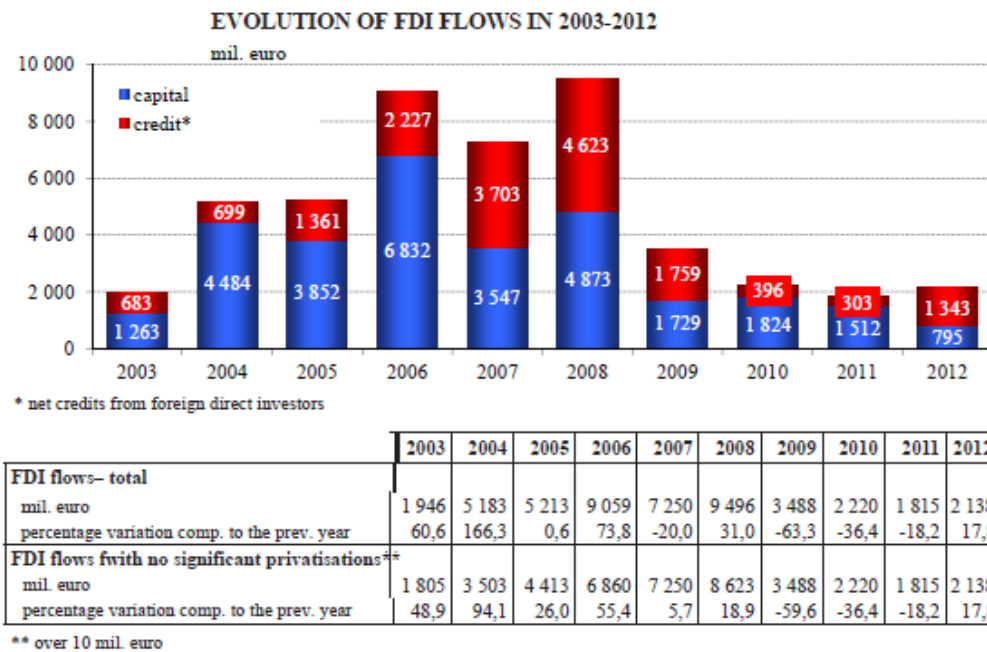


Figure 1. The evolution of foreign direct investments flow 2003-2012 (www.bnr.ro)

The foreign direct investments were mainly distributed to industry, finance and insurance, trade, energy and civil engineering.

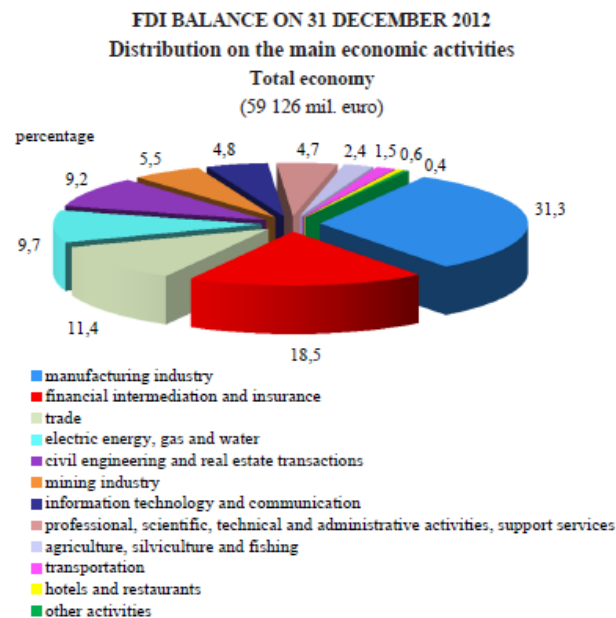


Figure2. The main economic activities (www.bnr.ro)

Unfortunately for the other regions, most of the foreign money invested goes to Bucharest (60.6%). Still, the percentages show a small decrease, as compared to 2010, when Bucharest attracted over 63% of the foreign direct investments.

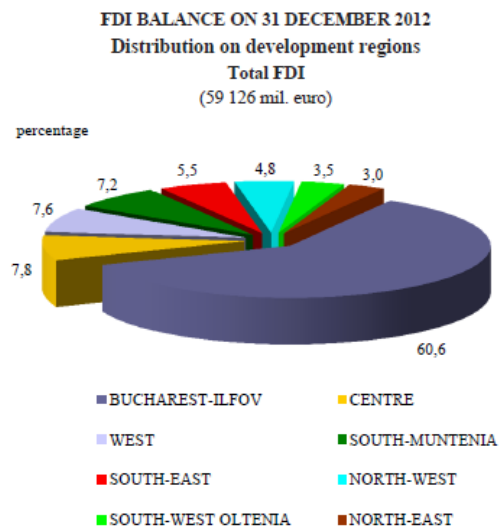


Figure 3. The main development regions (www.bnr.ro)

The main countries that invested in our economic branches can be seen in the chart below.

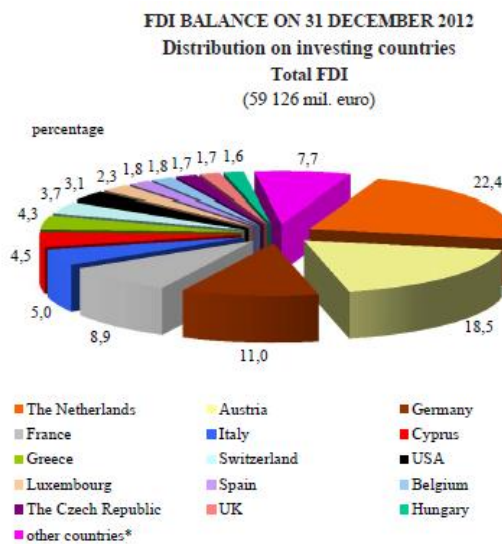


Figure 4. The main countries that invested in Romania in 2012 (www.bnr.ro)

No.	Country	Companies with foreign capital		Value of the subscribed capital					
				Total in national currency		Total in foreign currency		Total in equivalent currency	
		No.	%	thousand Lei	%	thousand USD	%	thousand EUR	%
0	1	2		3		4		5	
	Total ROMANIA	192,416	50.88	129,484,939.1	52.10	50,548,651.9	51.61	37,692,344.7	51.61
1	THE NETHERLANDS	4,441	2.33	27,649,963.2	21.47	10,299,290.3	20.48	7,300,393.7	20.58
2	AUSTRIA	6,677	3.51	16,731,441.7	12.99	6,999,007.4	13.92	4,929,405.4	13.90
3	GERMANY	20,146	10.59	13,916,602.1	10.81	6,268,721.1	12.47	4,396,419.7	12.40
4	CYPRUS	5,403	2.84	9,456,811.0	7.34	3,426,996.6	6.82	2,444,950.1	6.89
5	FRANCE	7,616	4.00	8,182,760.3	6.35	3,016,768.0	6.00	2,108,311.5	5.94
6	GREECE	5,790	3.04	6,083,293.3	4.72	2,429,736.5	4.83	1,688,513.9	4.76
7	ITALY	37,029	19.46	6,092,775.7	4.73	2,270,524.8	4.52	1,614,616.8	4.55
8	SPAIN	5,097	2.68	4,300,107.5	3.34	1,595,453.6	3.17	1,128,849.1	3.18
9	LUXEMBOURG	771	0.41	4,089,169.4	3.18	1,461,800.4	2.91	1,040,933.7	2.94
10	PANAMA	225	0.12	229,715.5	0.18	1,363,960.4	2.71	948,023.8	2.67

Source: National Office of the Trade Registry

Table 1. Main investing countries in companies with foreign capital on 31st December 2013

Foreign investments increased the number of places of work in our country. The candidates were asked not only to be well prepared in the respective field, to have the necessary specialty knowledge, but also to speak several foreign languages. Therefore, the ability to speak at least one foreign language is no longer an advantage but a must.

Foreign direct investments and the expansion of the trading activities abroad lead to the creation of new jobs. Statistics show that in 2012, 7,114 new jobs were created as a result of the FDI, as compared to 2011, when the number was of 5,985³.

Ranking by jobs created					
Rank	Country	2011	2012	Change	Share (2012)
1	United Kingdom	29,888	30,311	1.4%	17.8%
2	Russia	8,362	13,356	59.7%	7.8%
3	Poland	7,838	13,111	67.3%	7.7%
4	Germany	17,276	12,508	-27.6%	7.3%
5	France	13,164	10,542	-19.9%	6.2%
6	Serbia	13,479	10,302	-23.6%	6.0%
7	Turkey	7,295	10,146	39.1%	6.0%
8	Spain	9,205	10,114	9.9%	5.9%
9	Ireland	5,373	8,898	65.6%	5.2%
10	Romania	5,985	7,114	18.9%	4.2%
11	Slovakia	4,007	6,299	57.2%	3.7%
12	Czech Republic	5,168	5,508	6.6%	3.2%
13	FYRO Macedonia	3,040	4,670	53.6%	2.7%
14	Bulgaria	2,680	4,379	63.4%	2.6%
15	Hungary	5,237	3,941	-24.7%	2.3%
	Others	19,834	19,235	-3.0%	11.3%
Total		157,831	170,434	8.0%	100%

Source: <http://www.eyeim.com/>, 11/03/2014

Table 2. Country ranking by jobs created through FDI in 2011-2012

Today, “different employers need graduates who have different capabilities. All value the analytical and reflective qualities that lie at the heart of a quality learning experience. But there is a growing emphasis by employers on the need for graduates to demonstrate a range of competences which will equip them to work in a global environment, in different countries, in multi-cultural teams, be innovative and enterprising and have strong language skills... Businesses have diverse and multiple needs for higher learning.”⁴

But in order to work in companies in which foreigners invest or in multinationals, young graduates in Romania not only have to be well qualified in their field of activity, but they also have to possess good linguistic skills. This idea is also supported by the survey conducted by the Eurobarometer for the European Commission regarding the employers' perception on the graduates' employability. 201 Romanian companies, both public and private, were included in the research, and 35% of them declared that 1 out of 5 employees are graduates. Most of the graduates hired by these companies had a diploma in economics and business administration or technical studies⁵.

³<http://www.eyeim.com/press.htm>, 11th March 2014.

⁴<http://www.edge.co.uk/>, 17th March 2014.

⁵http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_304_en.pdf, 12th June 2011.

In what the skills and aptitudes relevant for the employment process are concerned, the study shows that, in Romania, the following have been evaluated as being the most important:

Skills and aptitudes	Percentage
Teamwork	80%
Ability to use the computer	79%
Ability to adapt to new situations	70%
Communication skills	70%
Analytical and problem-solving skills	66%
Planning and organizational skills	61%
Decision-making skills	47%
Foreign language knowledge	42%

Source: http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_304_en.pdf, 12/06/2011

Table 3. Skills and aptitudes valued by employers

For all the above-mentioned reasons, it is obvious how important it is for every future employee or entrepreneur to have linguistic skills, to master at least one foreign language. Even if English is today's *lingua franca*, it is important to remember the fact that any other foreign language can be a real asset for a person.

Foreign languages at Babeş-Bolyai University

Specialists in the field of linguistics and sociolinguistics strongly support the idea according to which bilinguals and multilinguals have an advantage in the recruitment process compared to monolinguals. "In tourism, marketing, retailing, airlines, public relations, banking, information and communications technology, accountancy, business consultancy, secretarial work, hotels, law and teaching, for example, bilingual and multilingual employees often have the competitive edge when applying for a post or for promotion."⁶

The strong connection between bilingualism or multilingualism and the employment market has also been proved by the fact that those who master several languages may use this for the prosperity of the businesses in order to act on the market trying to satisfy their customers' needs.

From this perspective, Babeş-Bolyai University is an example of good practice. Founded initially in 1581 as a Jesuit college, by the beginning of the 20th century the university became one of the most important universities of the region and of the country. Given the strong multicultural background of Transylvania, the Senate of the University

⁶ Colin Baker, 2001, *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 3rd edition, Multilingual Matters LTD: Clevedon-Buffalo-Toronto-Sydney, pp. 417-418.

decided, in 1995, to organise the institution on three lines of study—Romanian, Hungarian, and German⁷. Furthermore, apart from specialisations offered in the three above-mentioned languages, Babeş-Bolyai University also offers specialisations in different foreign language to increase the students' chances to find better jobs in Romania or abroad. As such, the university offers 14 specialisations in English, French, Russian, and Italian at bachelor's level, as well as 38 specialisations in the above-mentioned foreign languages at master's level.

Students enrolled at Babeş-Bolyai University have to study a foreign language for at least two semesters, depending on the faculty they belong to. For instance, students enrolled at the Faculty of Psychology and Education Sciences take compulsory foreign language courses for two semesters, while students enrolled at the Faculty of Business, for example, have to take compulsory foreign language courses for four semesters (until 2012, there were six semesters of compulsory language courses). The good thing about teaching foreign languages at Babeş-Bolyai University is that most language courses are actually *content and language integrated learning* courses, i.e. foreign languages are used to teach specialised courses, helping therefore students to improve their linguistic skills, by endowing them with specialised vocabulary in their field of study.

It is extremely important for students to be aware of the importance languages have in their personal and professional development. This was the reason why, in 2011, we carried out a research⁸ on the attitudes of students towards foreign language learning. The questionnaire applied was made up of 32 questions, separated into three distinct parts. The first part, *General Information*, gathered information on the faculty where the students were enrolled, as well as on the year of studies. The second part gathered information on the *students' linguistic skills*, by addressing questions referring to their mother tongue, the number of foreign languages known, the age when they started to learn foreign languages, the enumeration of the foreign languages they spoke, as well as a section where students were asked to *self-evaluate their language skills* as per the European Framework of reference for Languages.³³ 33 male students and 107 female students participated in our research.

The analysis of the questionnaires applied showed that nine of the male respondents declared knowing only one foreign language; sixteen declared knowing two foreign languages; eight of them declared knowing three foreign languages. As to the female sampling, things are a bit different as out of the 107 female respondents, only two declared knowing one foreign language, forty-five know two foreign languages, forty know three foreign languages, fourteen know four foreign languages and three declared knowing five foreign languages.

⁷<http://www.ubbcluj.ro/en/despre/>, 17th March 2014.

⁸ The survey was carried out in Romania and Italy—as part of a Ph.D. research—and was applied to students enrolled at Babeş-Bolyai University and at “La Sapienza” University of Rome, who agreed to take part in our survey on language teaching in their universities.

Further, the purpose of the questionnaire applied was to see whether students were aware of the importance of foreign languages or not. We included in the questionnaire an open question (“Is foreign language knowledge important from your point of view? Please motivate your answer”), and, consequently, we were able to classify the answers according to their types:

- foreign languages are important for the students’ personal development and
- foreign languages are important for the students’ professional development.

It is very important to see that students are aware of the necessity to learn foreign languages, and to learn as many and as varied as possible. That is why, we included a question asking them to mention which languages are the most important from their point of view.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	English	126	90,0	92,0	92,0
	French	1	,7	,7	92,7
	German	7	5,0	5,1	97,8
	Chinese	3	2,1	2,2	100,0
	Total	137	97,9	100,0	
Missing	System	3	2,1		
Total		140	100,0		

Table 4. The first foreign language mentioned as being the most important nowadays

Seeing that English, French, German, Spanish, Portuguese, Chinese are the languages that have been mentioned the most, we further asked the students which languages they studied at the faculty they enrolled, in order to see whether their linguistic needs were being covered or not.

Even though the survey was carried out in 2011, the percentages and students’ opinions have not changes too much. English still is the most widely taught foreign language in our university, as the results also showed. English tends to dominate the scene as a lingua franca in various domains of human life. It is, certainly, the synonym of globalization all around the world. It has become such a powerful language and such an important tool for communication that today we are surrounded by it everywhere. From newspapers to TV channels, from movies to music, from scientific articles to specialty books, we see or hear English almost anywhere we go. That is why, as some European Union recommendations state, English is no longer a necessity, but a must.

Babeş-Bolyai University – an example of good practice in teaching business English

Teaching business English is different from teaching general English, first of all because the objectives are different. If, when teaching general English, the purpose is to endow students with language skills to make them able to communicate in English in, let us say, a more informal environment, when teaching business English we always focus on the business world.

Why do we believe that our university is an example of good practice in teaching Business English? Because we focus on the practical aspects! As stated at the beginning of this article, students usually complain about the fact that courses are too theoretical and we try to make them more practical.

Most of our students are adults who are already in contact with the business world. They are either employed in a company or they run their own business. Therefore, their level of knowledge is already better than that of other students and their interest is higher because most of them have to communicate with foreign business partners.

As such, the business English course concentrates a lot on their communicative skills. Students usually have to do more talking than the professor. Business English courses focus on four main aspects: speaking, listening, vocabulary and writing in the business world. A course syllabus, depending on the faculty we teach at, contains the following topics:

- Being international (speaking before an international audience, giving presentations, being aware of cultural differences);
- Training (online training vs. face-to-face training);
- Partnerships (public and private initiatives);
- Energy (natural resources, alternative resources, the future of energy);
- Employment (the future of work, work relationships, types of employment);
- Business ethics (ethics in the business world, CSR, solving unethical problems);
- Finance and banking (types of banks, types of services, types of finance, financial vocabulary);
- Consultants (external vs. in-house consultants, their roles);
- Business strategy (company goals, objectives, targets, mission statements);
- New business (start-ups, entrepreneurs, funding, market research, SMEs);
- Project management (initiation, definition, implementation, tasks, project manager, deliverables). (source: *Market Leader Advanced*, Pearson Longman, 2006)

Each of these topics is supported by articles taken from financial magazines, such as the Financial Times or The Observer. Every business English course starts with a speaking part where students are asked to guess what the unit will be about or to comment on certain quotes. This is the warm-up part where they have to do all the talking. Debates usually arise

and students try hard to support their ideas with arguments from their own professional experience. This is a win-win situation, as the other colleagues can learn from the speaker's experience, but the professor as well can learn new things.

The second part of the course includes listening exercises, where students get used to different expressions used in the business world. This is where they can implement the listening strategies that are presented to them during the introductory course (top-down strategies or bottom-up strategies). The recordings played are always related to the topic taught during that class.

The third part of the course consists of reading comprehension exercises where students have to read authentic articles extracted from business magazines, such as the Financial Times.



Source: *Market Leader Advanced*, Pearson Longman

In this part, students are again asked to implement the reading strategies that have been presented to them during the introductory course (skimming, scanning, intensive reading and extensive reading). Unknown words and expressions are explained and new vocabulary is explored and introduced according to the topic.

The final part of the course usually has to do with role-play. Students may be asked to play different business roles, according to the situation given. For instance, students are asked to work in pairs. Student A has to pretend he/she is speaker at an international conference and he/she is a specialist in intercultural communication. Student A has to seize this opportunity and do networking in order to learn more from his/her colleagues, to present his/her company's activities and, eventually, to establish future business meetings. Student B is attending the same conference and he/she works as HR specialist in a multinational company.

Student B is interested in Student A's company and experience and would like to invite Student A to deliver a speech to a group of employees from his/her company. This task is related to the unit on international presentations and networking in business and its purpose is to familiarize students with certain expressions they could use in the business environment, whether they deal with formal or informal situations.

At the end of each class, the new vocabulary is revised and homework is assigned accordingly. Assignments are always given to students asking them to do some research on a certain topic, for instance they could be asked to write a business plan for a start-up or they could be asked to do some research on a company that has financial problems and try to come up with solutions for those problems.

Conclusions

Teaching business English can be fun and can have several advantages for both students and the professor teaching it. They all have the opportunity of learning new things and new vocabulary as the business world is a world that is constantly changing, new situations and vocabulary appear. Students are usually more motivated to learn business English as they are employed and use the language or they are young entrepreneurs wanting to expand their business on foreign markets.

However, teaching business English can also face some disadvantages. Usually, professors are not specifically trained to teach business English, therefore they have to learn as they teach, which is not an easy thing to do.

Also, some business English textbooks can be boring. Long texts, uninteresting activities for students or obsolete information, teaching business English also means always being up to date with the business world and with the latest products and services. That is why we, as business English teachers, have to be familiar with the companies operating on the market or with the services they offer, as well as with the new changes on the market.

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INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION – DIMENSION OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROCESS

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Abstract: The ethnic, religious and especially cultural classroom dimension represent a challenge for educators. Classroom is a "tessellated", "multicolored" reality, is a multicultural space. Students do not share the same cultural values and they don't have the same pattern or cultural background. Coming from different social environment and different families, the students "bring" with them and disseminate in the educational group different values, attitudes and behaviors, diverse ways of thinking, feeling and acting, varied life experiences strongly individualized in an affective, cognitive and actional ways.

In this context, in the present study, we intend to demonstrate that the process of intercultural communication is a sine qua non dimension of the educational process. Teachers need to appropriately manage this process in order to facilitate the exchange of values, behavioral patterns, of the perceptions - sometimes so different – on the one and the same element of the reality, etc. ..

Participating affective and effectively in the intercultural communication process, the students will naturally internalize values such as respect for diversity, tolerance, solidarity, cooperation, fairness, etc..

Intercultural communication provides the contacts, the interactions between students from different ethnocultural groups, becoming an intrinsic part of the educational practices developed in the classroom space. Through it, the students will "share" their values, learn to empathize with another which is different, to accept different perspectives and points of view, they will learn tolerance and respect for otherness, for diversity.

Keywords: diversity, intercultural communication, intercultural education, intercultural competences, educational interactions

Introducere

În contextul globalizării, educația interculturală ocupă un loc prioritar, dat fiind pluralismul etnic, prezent și activ al societății postmoderne. Educația interculturală stărnește interesul actanților din domeniul educațional de a se preocupa în mod deosebit de identificarea și eficientizarea modelelor de bună practică pedagogică în care, acțiunile de implementare și realizare a educației să vizeze și abordarea din perspectivă multiculturală a procesului de învățământ.

Scopul pedagogiei interculturale vizează pe de o parte valorificarea dimensiunii educației din perspectiva evoluției și a schimbărilor la nivelul elevilor în planurile cognitiv, afectiv, și comportamental, în spațiul social multicultural, iar pe de altă parte, să confere posibilitatea recunoașterii și acceptării pluralismului cultural, prezent la nivel societal. În acest cadru, înțelegerea dimensiunii educației interculturale capătă valențe constructiviste, în care profesorul, elevul și clasa se regăsesc într-un sistem articulat de acțiuni centrate pe acceptare, solidaritate, toleranță, armonie. Clasa de elevi devine astfel spațiul în care elevii se pot exprima, afirma și transmite în conformitate cu valorile culturii native.

Astfel, educația devine facilitatorul deschiderii către alte culturi. În acord cu această perspectivă, finalitățile educației interculturale vizează: dezvoltarea gândirii critice, reflecția și

eliberarea de prejudecăți, conștientizarea valorilor, dezvoltarea calităților intelectuale și morale, dragostea de adevăr, respectul, deschiderea către alte culturi, scepticismul reflexiv, familiarizarea elevului cu propria cultură (Ainsi Parekh, 1986, apud. Ouellet, 1991, 17).

În opinia autorului Ioan Neacșu statutul educației interculturale se poate descrie considerând următoarele aserțiuni: a) „Cunoașterea și revalorizarea patrimoniului cultural b) Conștientizarea întrebărilor fundamentale care generează activizarea unor noi abordări conceptual-valorice, metodologic-instrumentale și acționale ale sferei umanului văzută în pluralitățile lui fundamentale. c) Formarea/educarea / învățarea/acceptarea nucleului central al interculturalității – identificarea și preservarea diferențelor pe fundalul interacțiunii, al consensului optim d) Valorizarea strategică a similitudinilor și a diferențelor gândite din perspectiva normelor, valorilor existente; e) Crearea progresivă a unui set articulat de subcompetente care configurează competențe interculturale; f) Promovarea în spațiul educativ formal și nonformal a competenței plurilingvistice” (Neacșu, 1986, 163).

Prin urmare, comunicarea interculturală, în context educațional, este considerată deziderat al educației prin și pentru oameni, prin și pentru o societate ideală. Comunicarea interculturală asigură contactele, interacțiunile între elevii aparținând diferitelor grupuri etnoculturale, devenind în acest sens, o componentă intrinsecă a practicilor educaționale dezvoltate în spațiul clasei. Prin intermediul acesteia, elevii își vor „împărtăși” propriile valori, vor învăța să empatizeze cu un altul diferit, să accepte perspective și puncte de vedere diferite de ale lor, vor învăța toleranța și respectul pentru alteritate, pentru diversitate.

În acest context, în studiul de față, ne propunem să demonstrăm faptul că procesul comunicării interculturale reprezintă o dimensiune sine qua non a actului educațional. Profesorii trebuie să gestioneze adecvat acest proces, cu scopul de a facilita schimbul de valori, de modele comportamentale/acționale, de percepții - uneori atât de diferite - asupra unuia și aceluiași element al realității etc. Participând afectiv și efectiv la procesul comunicării interculturale, elevii vor internaliza în mod firesc valori precum: respectul pentru diversitate, toleranța, solidaritatea, cooperarea, echitatea etc..

Preliminarii metodologice

Demersul nostru investigativ a presupus derularea unei anchete pe bază de chestionar și corelarea datelor obținute prin analiza cantitativă cu cele rezultate în urma realizării unor discuții de tip focus-grup (analiză calitativă). Chestionarul a fost administrat, în condiții de confidențialitate, unui lot format din 70 de cadre didactice (învățători și profesori) care predau în învățământul primar și gimnazial și au o vechime în învățământ cuprinsă între 1 și 27 de ani. În instituțiile de învățământ în care aceste cadre didactice activează, populația școlară se caracterizează prin diversitate etnică, fiind compusă din elevi români (majoritari) dar și din romi, sârbi, bulgari, ruși și turci, în proporții variate. 66,66% dintre respondenți își desfășoară activitatea în instituții de învățământ din mediul urban și restul de 33,33% în mediul rural.

Obiectivele studiului întreprins au vizat: a) identificarea opiniilor cadrelor didactice cu privire la măsura în care comunicarea interculturală reprezintă cu adevărat o dimensiune a procesului de învățământ contemporan din România; b) evidențierea contextelor în care comunicarea interculturală poate fi realizată; c) conștientizarea cadrelor didactice cu privire la necesitatea utilizării comunicării interculturale în cadrul activităților școlare și extrașcolare.

Ipoteza ce s-a constituit ca premisă a cercetării întreprinse este următoarea: dacă profesorii promovează un tip de comunicare interculturală atunci interacțiunile între elevii aparținând diferitelor grupuri etno-culturale vor fi facilitate iar comunicarea interculturală va deveni, în mod real, o componentă intrinsecă a practicilor educaționale dezvoltate în spațiul clasei de elevi și dincolo de acesta.

Chestionarul a fost de tip mixt, fiind structurat pe 10 întrebări, unele cu răspunsuri deschise iar altele cu răspunsuri închise (de ordonare pe o scală de tip Likert, cu alegere unică sau multiplă). În paralel am aplicat și metoda discuțiilor de tip focus-grupului, analizând următoarele aspecte: necesitatea realizării unei comunicări didactice în contextual căreia să fie promovate principiile și valorile educației interculturale, necesitatea instrumentării elevilor și cadrelor didactice cu competențe de tip intercultural, restructurarea curriculumului actual în raport cu necesitățile unei societăți multiculturale, identificarea modalităților de facilitare a procesului de relaționare între elevi aparținând unor culture, religii și etnii diferite etc.

Rezultatele demersului investigativ

Prin prelucrarea statistică a datelor obținute în urma aplicării chestionarelor am constatat că, 16,66% dintre cadrele didactice chestionate apreciază că sistemul de învățământ actual din țara noastră reprezintă un context favorabil pentru realizarea unei comunicări interculturale în mare măsură, 75% într-o măsură moderată iar restul de 8,33% în mică măsură.

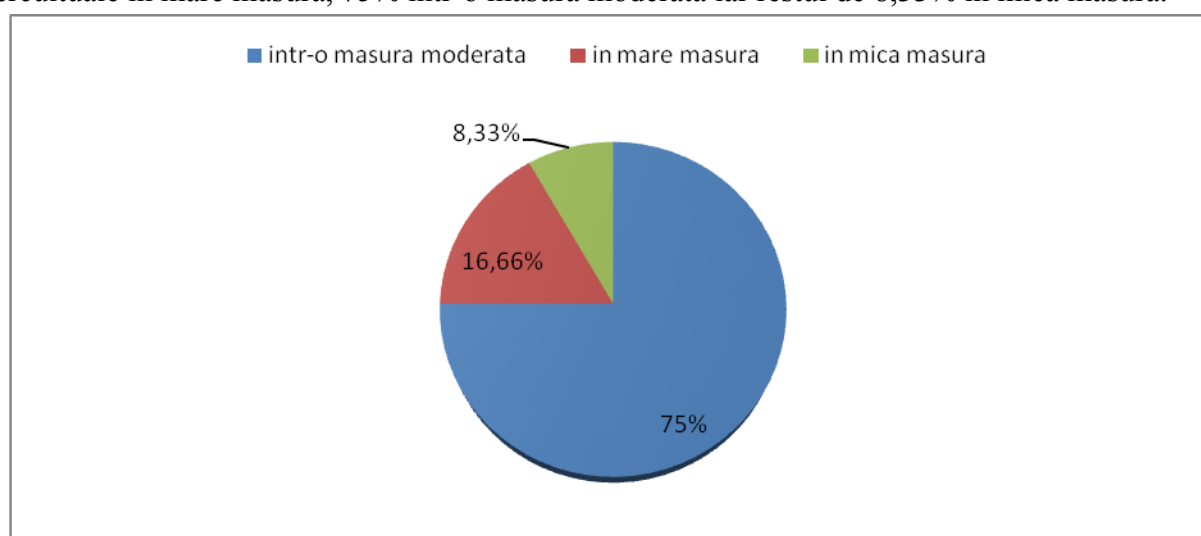


Figura nr. 1. Opiniile cadrelor didactice cu privire la măsura în care sistemul de învățământ românesc reprezintă un context favorabil pentru realizarea unei comunicări interculturale

În urma discuțiilor purtate cu cadrele didactice am înțeles faptul că aceste date sunt justificate printr-o serie de măsuri implementate la nivelul sistemului de învățământ românesc, ca urmare a ralierei la politicile europene ce vizează educația interculturală. Acestea pun accent, pe de o parte, pe necesitatea promovării, în cadrul procesului de învățământ, a unei comunicări interculturale, și, pe de altă parte pe, activitățile de formarea inițială și continuă a cadrelor didactice în domeniul interculturalității.

De asemenea, aceste opinii pot fi corelate și cu răspunsurile date de cadrele didactice chestionate referitor la cauzele obiective ce stau la baza unui demers educațional centrat pe o comunicare interculturală. Astfel, o pondere semnificativă o au cauze precum: democratizarea societății, procesul de integrare europeană pe care îl traversează țara noastră, diversitatea mediului socio-cultural, faptul că fiecare cultură și fiecare etnie are valori ce se perpetuează de la o generație la alta, prin intermediul educației, necesitatea cultivării unor atitudini precum toleranța și acceptare celorlalți pentru a preveni și diminua situațiile conflictuale din școală și din clasă, necesitatea relaționării și comunicării sociale etc..

Conștientizând aceste cauze profesorii apreciază că realizarea, în cadrul instituțiilor de învățământ din care provin, a unor activități menite să intensifice procesul de comunicare interculturală este foarte necesară-58,33%, are o necesitate de nivel mediu- 16,66% și o necesitate redusă-25%.

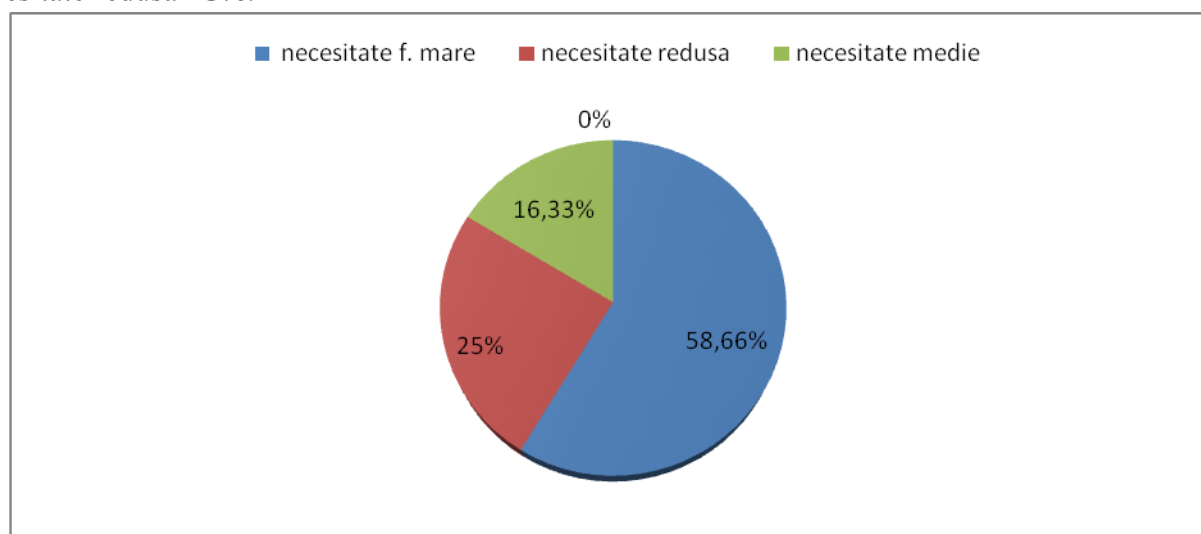


Figura nr. 2. Opiniile profesorilor privind realizarea, în cadrul instituțiilor de învățământ din care provin, a unor activități menite să intensifice procesul de comunicare interculturală

Discuțiile purtate cu cadrele didactice, în speță cu cele care au apreciat că implementarea unor astfel de activități are o necesitate redusă, au relevat faptul că opiniile acestora sunt bazate pe argumente de tipul: programe școlare prea încărcate, dezinteres al copiilor și familiilor pentru astfel de probleme, existența unor prejudecăți sociale greu de schimbat cu privire la anumite etnii sau culturi etc. Cu toate acestea, în majoritatea lor, cadrele didactice ne-au asigurat că în unitățile de învățământ din care fac parte nu sunt promovate practici educaționale discriminatorii, în raport cu o anumită etnie sau cultură.

Cu privire la necesitatea restructurării curriculumului actual, mai precis a componentelor sale fundamentale: finalități, conținuturi și metodologie didactică de predare-învățare și respectiv de evaluare, opiniile cadrelor didactice se structurează astfel: 41,66 sunt absolut de acord cu acest lucru iar 58,33% și-au exprimat doar acordul parțial. Aceștia din urmă apreciază că finalitățile, mai ales cele de nivel macrostructural (idealul și scopurile educației) sunt formulate deja în acord cu principiile comunicării interculturale iar schimbările se impun mai ales la nivelul conținuturilor cuprinse în programele școlare și în manualele școlare alternative.

Privitor la conținuturi, sugestiile cadrelor didactice intervievate vizează abordarea la nivel conceptual-teoretic dar și practic-aplicativ a unor teme precum: cunoaștere, comunicare și relaționare interculturală, cunoașterea tradițiilor și obiceiurilor altor popoare, despre rase și etnii, diversitatea culturală, toleranța și respectul față de ceilalți, asigurarea șanselor egale la educație, eliminarea prejudecăților și a atitudinilor discriminatorii, integrare și incluziune socială etc.

La nivel metodologic, profesorii apreciază că realizarea unui demers didactic intercultural ține în foarte mare măsură de disponibilitatea și creativitate didactică a fiecărui educator precum și de baza didactico-materială de care dispune instituția de învățământ.

Ca atare, atunci când au fost chestionați cu privire la măsura în care comunicarea interculturală reprezintă o dimensiune operațională a procesului de învățământ pe care fiecare îl gestionează profesorii au răspuns astfel: 8,33% în mică măsură, 8,33% într-o măsură moderată, 75% în mare măsură și 8,33% în foarte mare măsură. Aceste valori denotă faptul că la nivelul demersurilor didactice desfășurate în contextul procesului de învățământ comunicarea interculturală constituie, într-o măsură semnificativă o dimensiune concretă, operațională a educației.

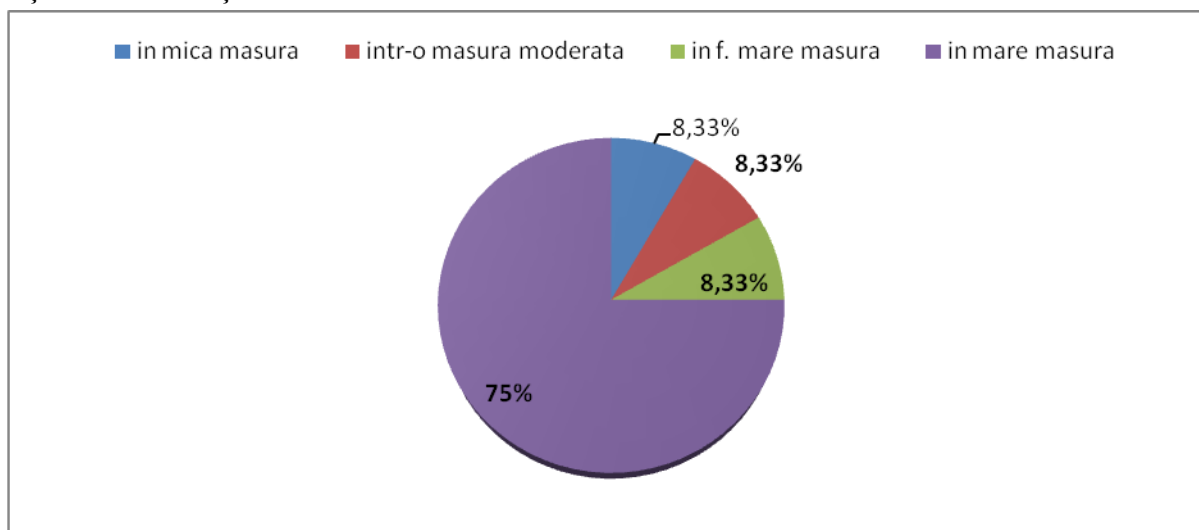


Figura nr. 3. Opiniile profesorilor privind măsura în care comunicarea interculturală reprezintă o dimensiune operațională a procesului de învățământ pe care fiecare îl gestionează

Cu referire la gradul de corelație dintre comunicarea interculturală și procesul de socializare care are loc în contextul clasei de elevi cadrele didactice apreciază că:

- relațiile interpersonale profesor-elev și elev-elev sunt dependente de modul în care se realizează comunicarea interculturală, în foarte mare măsură (75%) și în mare măsură (25%);
- climatul clasei de elevi este dependent de maniera în care se realizează comunicarea interculturală, în foarte mare măsură (83,33%) și în mare măsură (16,66%);
- gradul de conformare la norme și reguli este dependent de calitatea comunicării interculturale în foarte mare măsură (58,33%) și în mare măsură (33,33%) și într-o măsură moderată (8,33%);

- principiile și valorile mediului familial și comunitar influențează comunicarea interculturală din interiorul clasei de elevi în foarte mare măsură (75%) și în mare măsură (16,66%) și într-o măsură moderată (8,33%);

Concluzii

Toate aceste date factuale vin să confirme faptul că, societatea în care trăim este una multiculturală iar activitatea instituțiilor de învățământ, privite ca organizații sociale, este puternic influențată de o serie de aspecte de ordin intercultural. În spațiul școlii și al clasei de elevi, diversitate etnică sau culturală, nu trebuie să fie, în niciun caz, o sursă generatoare de atitudini și comportamente discriminatorii sau conflictuale. Din contră, această pluralitate de noțiuni, valori și atitudini trebuie să constituie un context prielnic pentru procesul de formare și dezvoltare a personalității fiecărui elev precum și pentru crearea solidarității grupului-clasă.

De asemenea, comunicarea interculturală trebuie să treacă dincolo de limitele spațiului școlar și să vizeze și contextele de educație nonformală și chiar informală. În acest sens, respondenții au identificat o serie de activități precum: concursuri pe teme (inter)culturale, serbări în care să fie prezentate obiceiuri și tradiții reprezentative pentru diferite culturi sau etnii, excursii tematice, întâlniri cu personalități din domeniul, științei tehnicii, culturii sau artei, reprezentativi pentru o anumită cultură sau etnie, parteneriate și proiecte interculturale, implicarea în programe/proiecte europene de tip Comenius, Erasmus sau Leonardo, simpozioane, mese rotunde, work-shop-uri etc.

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CONSIDERATIONS ON TEACHERS DISCRIMINATORY PRACTICES

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Abstract: Even if we value it or not, diversity is an intrinsic dimension of everyday life. Valuing the differences, respect for others and openness to them, equal treatment given to all, regardless of ethnicity, religion, language, age, gender, are just some of the new demands addresses to the school, under the impact of diversity.

Considering that ethnic, religious and cultural diversity should not be a "source" generating discrimination, segregation, conflicts and so on, but should be valued and seen as an opportunity for change, for personal and social development, as a means of knowledge and self-awareness, we focus this study on the analysis of the specific way in which the school and the teachers develop a reaction more or less appropriate to differences and diversity.

In this context, we focused our reflection on some important aspects of the learning environment: the extent to which the design and the implementation of didactic activity involves the reporting to some pedagogical principles and values such as valuing differences, respect and openness to otherness, equal educational opportunities for all children, fairness, cooperation, etc.; the identification of some relevant indicators on the presence of discrimination in the teaching practices of teachers

The premise of our study is one according to which educational practice confirms that most of the times, educators prove to be insufficiently trained to effectively manage diversity in the classroom. For this reason, often, they prefer to ignore the differences between students and more, to support a monocultural educational approach, "promoting" attitudes, behaviors and discriminatory practices of segregation and labeling.

Keywords: diversity, discrimination, intercultural education, intercultural competence, pedagogical values

Introducere

Trăim într-o lume „multicoloră”, o lume cu o diversitate de culturi, de valori, de paradigme. Este necesar să înțelegem, astăzi mai mult decât oricând, că singura cale de a surmonta conflictele interetnice/interculturale/interreligioase, din ce în ce mai frecvente, și de a construi *un sat global* armonios, este cea a toleranței, a respectului pentru diversitate, a înțelegerii, a acceptării și valorizării adecvate a alterității, a echilibrului etc.. Este calea spre o societate interculturală, în cadrul căreia interacțiunile dintre oameni, grupuri, culturi sunt promovate, iar diferențele nu mai sunt doar tolerate sau ignorate, ci sunt recunoscute, acceptate și valorificate adecvat. Într-o astfel de societate, prejudecățile, stereotipurile, discriminarea, segregarea sunt din ce în ce mai puțin prezente, iar principiul „*toți diferiți, toți egali*” tinde să devină o realitate, și nu rămâne doar un simplu slogan.

Educatorii reprezintă principala resursă, atâta vreme cât ne dorim să clădim în mod real o societate interculturală, o societate al cărei profil axiologic să includă valori precum: *respectul pentru diversitate, echitatea, toleranța, solidaritatea, cooperarea etc.* În acest sens, pentru a-i abilita pentru abordarea corectă a diversității din spațiul școlii, formarea lor interculturală reprezintă un demers necesar. Respectarea și valorizarea diferențelor, asigurarea

egalității șanselor în educație pentru toți elevii, depășirea etnocentrismului și acceptarea alterității trebuie să se materializeze în practici educaționale valorificate constant în procesul de învățământ și să nu rămână doar simple principii teoretice.

Discriminarea în sala de clasă

Dimensiunea etnică, religioasă și, în special, culturală a clasei de elevi reprezintă o provocare pentru educatori. Este greu sau aproape imposibil ca în spațiul clasei să identifiți elevi care împărtășesc aceleași valori culturale, au același pattern sau background cultural. Provenind din medii socio-familiale diferite, elevii „aduc” cu ei valori diferite, atitudini și comportamente diverse, moduri de a gândi, de a simți și acționa variate, experiențe de viață puternic individualizate afectiv și nu numai. Clasa de elevi este o realitate cu mii de nuanțe, o realitate „multicoloră”, este un spațiu multicultural.

De cele mai multe ori, educatorii, puși în fața diversității din spațiul clasei, se dovedesc a fi insuficient instrumentați pentru a o gestiona eficient. Tocmai de aceea, frecvent, preferă să facă abstracție de diferențele dintre elevi, ignorând faptul că aceștia preiau necritic atitudinile, comportamentele, sentimentele manifestate și dezvoltate de către adulții din jurul lor. Iată de ce rolul educației și al educatorilor este crucial în formarea unei atitudini pozitive față de ceea ce înseamnă diversitate sau diferență. „Ca adulți care lucrează în domeniul educației, consideră Andruszkiewicz și Prenton (2007), avem toți responsabilitatea să fim conștienți în special de prejudecățile și credințele pe care noi înșine le-am dezvoltat în timpul devenirii noastre. Avem responsabilitatea să înfruntăm ignoranța și prejudecata și să ne asigurăm că prejudecățile și stereotipurile nu sunt transmise de la o generație la alta”.

În acest context, ne întrebăm: în ce măsură profesorii se pliază pe realitățile evidente ale clasei de elevi? Proiectează și susțin ei un demers educațional bazat pe valorificarea diversității, a diferențelor dintre copii? Percep aceste diferențe ca fiind o sursă de îmbogățire, de dezvoltare personală și socială, sau mai degrabă le neglijează?

Încă de la vârste foarte fragede, copiii sesizează diferențele dintre oameni. Mai mult, ei „interpretează” aceste diferențe și pot dezvolta sentimente negative față de oamenii *altfel*. „Copiii care sunt diferiți de majoritate în vreun fel pot chiar începe să aibă sentimente negative față de ei înșiși, dacă simt că deosebirea aceasta este percepută ca fiind ceva „mai puțin normal” sau „mai puțin bun”. De aceea, este important ca adulții să aibă atitudini pozitive față de diferențe, așa încât, în loc să dezvolte sentimente negative, copiii să crească fiind conștienți că și oamenii care sunt diferiți de ei sunt interesați, atractivi, sunt colegi de joacă plăcuți etc.” (Andruszkiewicz, Prenton 2007, 50).

Dezvoltând, în general, un demers educațional monocultural, profesorii nu numai că nu adoptă o atitudine pozitivă față de diferențe, ci „introduc” în spațiul clasei atitudini, comportamente și practici discriminatorii, de segregare, de etichetare, pornind de la premisa conform căreia cultura majoritară trebuie diseminată către toți elevii pentru a asigura adaptarea și integrarea tuturor în *statul-națiune*. Loiale culturii naționale, de cele mai multe ori, cadrele didactice „împărtășesc” exclusiv valorile acesteia, care se transformă, pentru elevi, în „cod” de acces la reușita școlară. Șansele de a interioriza acest „cod” și a-l transforma în instrument operațional, cu rol facilitator pentru învățare, nu sunt însă egale pentru toți elevii. Cei care, pe traseul socializării primare din familie, s-au familiarizat cu reperele de bază ale culturii majoritare, au deja asigurate premisele pentru reușita școlară.

Ceilalți sunt supuși unui proces de discriminare, profesorii raportându-se la ei prin prisma reprezentărilor, prejudecăților, stereotipiilor, convingerilor și propriilor expectanțe față de *un altul* diferit prin etnie, religie sau cultură. Asistăm deseori la situații în care elevii aparținând unei etnii, religii sau culturi minoritare, sunt etichetați ca având „probleme de comportament”, „dificultăți în învățare” sau incluși în categoria „copii cu CES”. Expectanțele cadrelor didactice față de acești copii sunt mai mici, cu efecte imediate asupra stimei de sine, implicării în activitățile școlare și, implicit, asupra rezultatelor obținute. Potențialul acestor elevi, resursele lor reale nu sunt cunoscute și valorificate. De cele mai multe ori, sunt ignorați, „dirijați” către periferia clasei de către un dascăl a cărui menire este, de fapt, să asigure șanse egale la educație.

Acești copii riscă să devină victime ale unui sistem de învățământ, opac și impermeabil, și ale unor profesori, de cele mai multe ori, rigizi, conservatori, gata să „reacționeze” la orice intruziune a unor valori străine de cultura națională.

Diversitatea însă, etnică, religioasă, culturală, nu trebuie să fie „sursa” generatoare de discriminări, segregări, conflicte etc., ci trebuie valorificată și percepută ca oportunitate de dezvoltare, de schimbare, de îmbogățire personală, de către fiecare dintre actanții educaționali, și, deopotrivă, ca modalitate de cunoaștere și autocunoaștere.

“Pentru educație a sosit timpul de a face propriii actori să înțeleagă că diversitatea este prezentă în fiecare ființă umană, că ea nu este un privilegiu al unora sau motiv de excluziune a altora. Oricare ar fi sistemul de referință, diversitatea este o bogăție ce trebuie valorizată” (Bârlogeanu, 2006, 67).

Percepția elevilor asupra practicilor discriminatorii ale profesorilor

Premisa studiului nostru este aceea conform căreia practica educațională confirmă faptul că, de cele mai multe ori, educatorii se dovedesc a fi insuficient instrumentați pentru a gestiona eficient diversitatea din spațiul clasei. Frecvent, ei fac abstracție de diferențele dintre elevi și, mai mult, susțin un demers educațional bazat pe valorificarea unor atitudini, comportamente și practici discriminatorii.

Obiectivele studiului întreprins au constat în:

- investigarea opiniilor subiecților cu privire la prezența discriminării în școală, a modului de manifestare a acesteia, a situațiilor în care se manifestă pregnant;
- identificarea principalilor factori ce stau la baza practicilor discriminatorii ale profesorilor în spațiul educațional;
- evidențierea unor măsuri ce trebuie adoptate pentru prevenirea/combaterrea practicilor discriminatorii ale profesorilor.

Cercetarea este de tip cantitativ, realizată pe un eșantion de 84 de elevi, structurat, eterogen, de intenționalitate. Metoda de cercetare utilizată a fost ancheta pe bază de chestionar. Chestionarul aplicat a inclus atât întrebări cu răspuns închis (de tip scală), cât și întrebări deschise.

Unul dintre itemii chestionarului a vizat opinia subiecților cu privire la respectarea principiului egalității de șanse în educație. 25% dintre repondenți consideră că acest principiu se respectă în școală, dar o proporție semnificativă de subiecți (75%) consideră că acest principiu este încălcat. Solicitându-li-se să explice opțiunea pentru un anumit răspuns, elevii care au răspuns afirmativ au invocat argumente de tipul: toți copiii au drepturi egale și acestea sunt respectate, toți elevii au acces la educație și sunt tratați nediferențiat în spațiul școlii.

Repondenții care au apreciat că acest principiu nu se respectă în școală, aduc argumente numeroase în sprijinul alegerii făcute, ce ar putea fi sintetizate astfel:

- profesorii au elevi ”preferați” (de obicei, copii care provin din medii familiale favorizate din punct de vedere socio-cultural și economic sau cei care obțin rezultate școlare de nivel superior), pe care îi solicită constant în cadrul activităților, le supraestimează resursele personale, neglijându-i/ignorându-i pe ceilalți;
- mulți elevi sunt discriminați, în special cei cu dizabilități, cei care provin din medii familiale defavorizate sau cei care fac parte din etnia rromă.

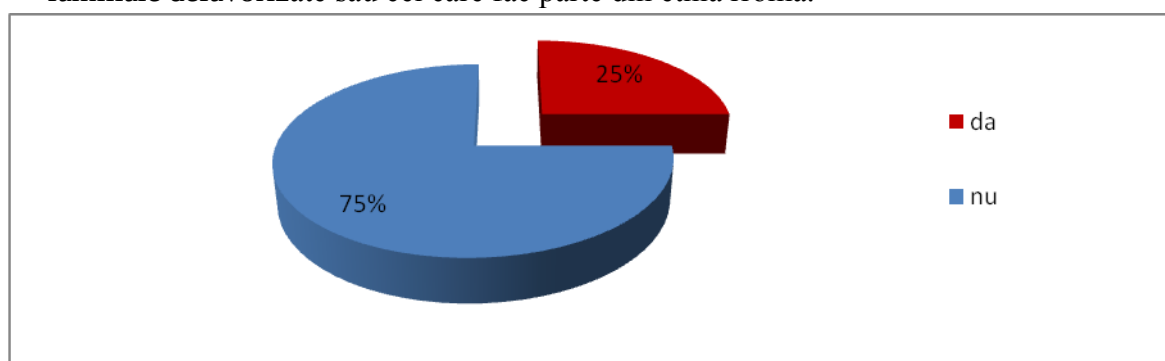


Figura nr. 1. Percepția elevilor cu privire la respectarea principiului egalității de șanse

Concluzionând, putem afirma că, în percepția subiecților cercetării, principiul egalității de șanse în educație este cel mai adesea încălcat.

Un alt item al chestionarului s-a focusat pe cercetarea opiniilor elevilor de liceu cu privire la măsura în care discriminarea este un fenomen prezent în școală. Urmărind distribuția răspunsurilor oferite (Figura nr. 2), sesizăm plasarea acestora pe treptele superioare ale scalei, ceea ce indică prezența acestui fenomen în școală *într-o măsură moderată* - 35,71%, *în mare măsură* - 28,57% și *în foarte mare măsură* - 10,71%. Doar 21,34% dintre elevii chestionați consideră că discriminarea este prezentă în școală *în mică măsură* și 3,57% *în foarte mică măsură*. Se confirmă astfel opinia exprimată de noi în debutul acestui studiu, conform căreia discriminarea reprezintă un fenomen prezent în viața școlii.

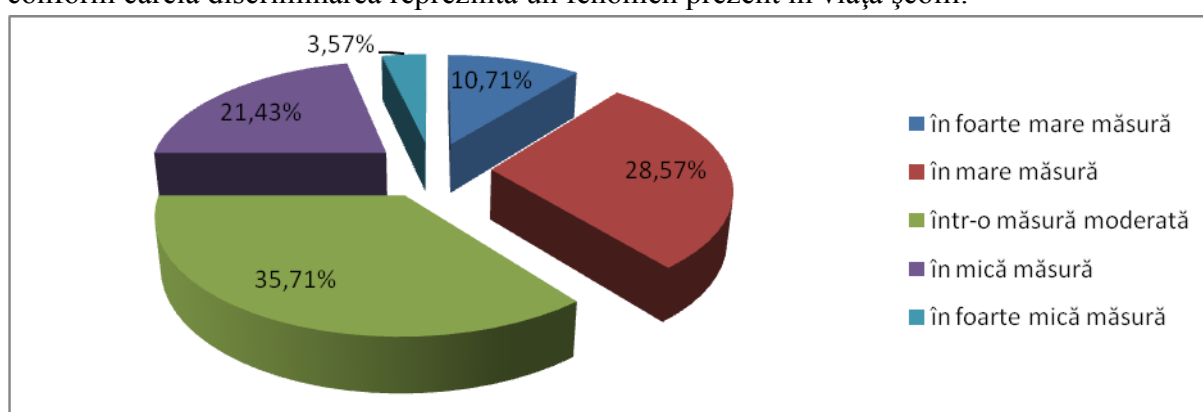


Figura nr. 2. Percepția elevilor cu privire la prezența discriminării în școală

Li s-a solicitat respondenților să acorde ranguri factorilor care generează discriminarea în școală/sala de clasă, în funcție de ponderea pe care consideră că o au în declanșarea acestui fenomen: condiție socială/familială, etnie, religie, gen, dizabilități fizice/psihice, alți factori.

Din analiza răspunsurilor furnizate, putem observa că cei mai mulți subiecți acordă rangul 1 condiției sociale/familiale a elevilor, urmată de etnie și dizabilitățile fizice și psihice, în procente egale. Rangul 3 a fost alocat apartenenței la un anumit cult religios și/sau la un anumit gen.

Următoarea întrebare a chestionarului a vizat investigarea opiniilor elevilor în ceea ce privește situațiile în care se manifestă mai evident discriminarea. Astfel, așa cum se poate observa în figura de mai jos, cei mai mulți dintre subiecți consideră că discriminarea se manifestă cel mai evident în actul evaluării (82,14%), celelalte situații/contexte educaționale menționate obținând procente nesemnificative (situațiile de predare-învățare - 10,71%, activitățile extrașcolare - 7,14%).

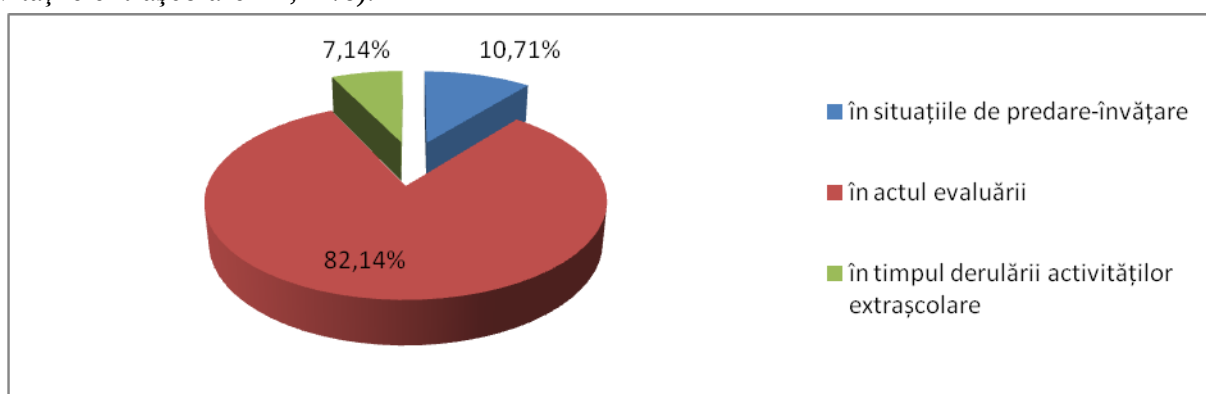


Figura nr. 3. Situațiile în care se manifestă mai evident discriminarea

Pentru a surprinde modul în care se manifestă discriminarea, pentru a identifica practicile discriminatorii ale profesorilor, li s-a solicitat subiecților prezentarea unei situații concrete în care ei sau colegi de-ai lor au fost discriminați. Cele mai multe dintre situațiile descrise au făcut referire la discriminare în actul evaluării și contexte discriminatorii ce au la bază etnia (elevii rromi sunt, în general, etichetați ca fiind incapabili să răspundă adecvat sarcinilor școlare sau ca elevi cu probleme de comportament). Răspunsurile furnizate de respondenți la acest item întăresc și confirmă concluziile formulate la itemii anteriori.

Prin intermediul următorului item al chestionarului, s-a urmărit identificarea opiniei subiecților chestionați cu privire la măsura în care ei consideră că elevii care aparțin etniei majoritare reușesc să se plaseze mai ușor în zona succesului școlar, comparativ cu cei care reprezintă o etnie minoritară în spațiul școlii/clasei. Cei mai mulți dintre subiecți au răspuns afirmativ (78,57%), în timp ce procentul celor ce au răspuns negativ este unul foarte mic, doar 3,57%. Această distribuție a răspunsurilor (Figura nr. 4) ne conduce către concluzia că apartenența la o anumită etnie reprezintă un factor extrem de important în determinarea succesului/eșecului școlar.

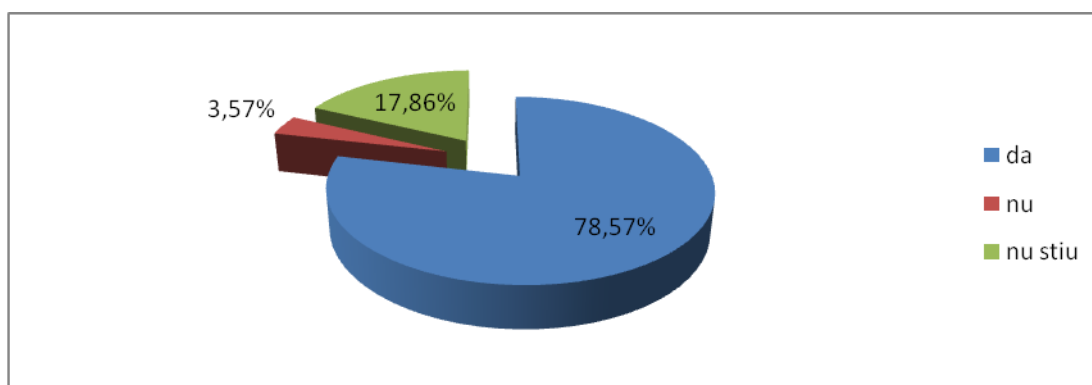


Figura nr. 4. Impactul factorului etnic asupra succesului școlar

Un alt item se concentrează pe impactul mediului familial asupra rezultatelor școlare ale elevilor. Astfel, subiecții au fost întrebați dacă ei consideră că elevii care provin dintr-un mediu familial favorizat și favorizant din punct de vedere socio-economic, reușesc să obțină mai ușor rezultate școlare supramedii, comparativ cu cei care provin din medii familiale defavorizate/defavorizante (familii cu nivel socio-economic scăzut). Putem constata, din nou, așa cum reiese din Figura nr. 5, că procentul celor ce au optat pentru un răspuns afirmativ este mult mai mare decât al celor care aleg varianta de răspuns negativ: 82,14% față de 14,29%.

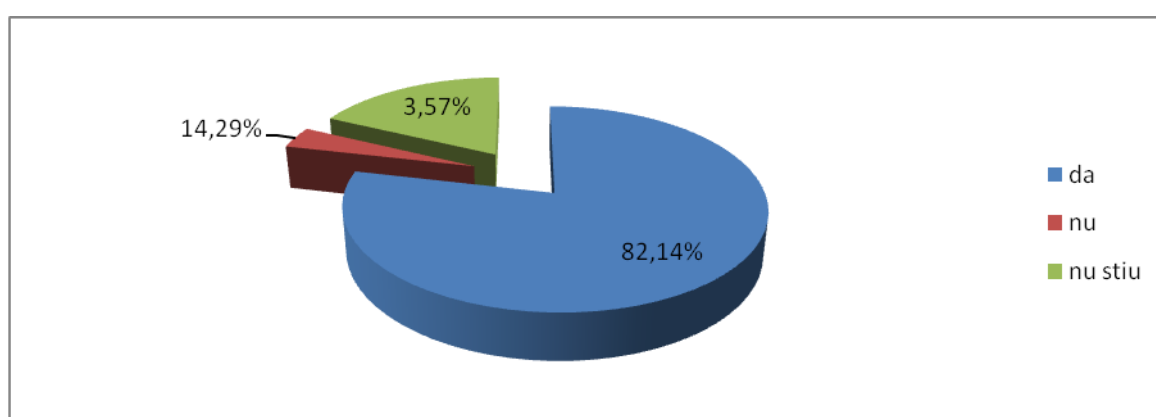


Figura nr. 5. Impactul mediului socio-familial asupra rezultatelor școlare

Solicitând subiecților să estimeze evoluția nivelului de discriminare în sistemul educațional, în ultimii ani, observăm că 42,86% dintre aceștia consideră ca nivelul de discriminare a rămas la fel, 39,28% apreciază că acesta a crescut și doar 17,86% dintre repondenți afirmă că a scăzut. Analiza răspunsurilor (Figura nr. 6) ne conduce către evidențierea unei realități îngrijorătoare, și anume faptul că în ultimii ani, deși au fost adoptate o serie de măsuri de prevenire, de combatere a discriminării în școli, efectele obținute sunt departe de cele așteptate, atât timp cât, în percepția unui procent semnificativ din elevii chestionați, fenomenul a luat amploare.

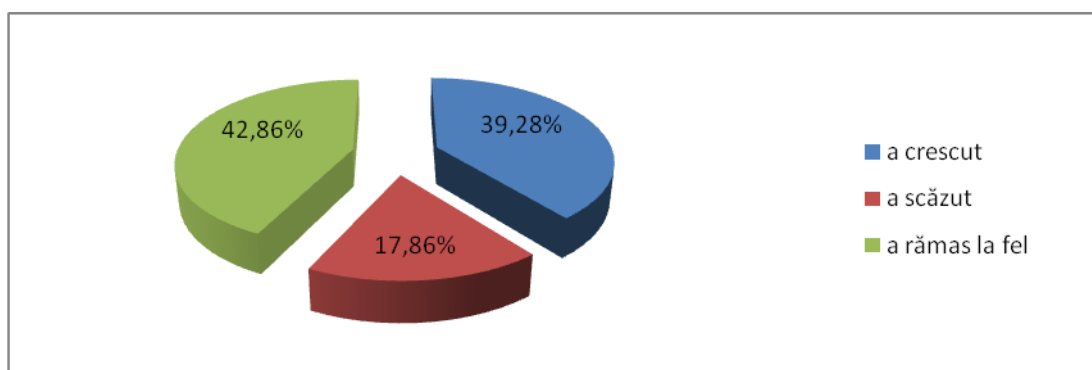


Figura nr. 6. Evoluția nivelului de discriminare în sistemul educațional, în ultimii ani

Prin intermediul ultimului item al chestionarului, le-am cerut chiar celor care devin subiecți ai discriminării în școală să propună un set de măsuri ce trebuie adoptate pentru prevenirea/combateră practicilor discriminatorii ale profesorilor. Propunerile repondenților în acest sens sunt numeroase și diferite, unele dintre acestea încadrându-se în categoria măsurilor pozitive, constructive, de încurajare și susținere a profesorilor, altele având mai degrabă un caracter punitiv, coercitiv.

În prima categorie, putem înregistra următoarele măsuri sugerate de elevi:

- asigurarea unei mai bune cunoașteri a elevilor, a mediului socio-familial de proveniență a acestora;
- includerea informațiilor despre interculturalitate în curriculum-ul școlar;
- organizarea unor cursuri de formare inițială și continuă a profesorilor focusate pe problematica interculturalității;
- organizarea de activități extrașcolare pe tema interculturalității;
- adoptarea unui stil managerial și de predare democratic, bazat pe comunicare, înțelegere și considerație față de toți elevii;
- combaterea practicii etichetării prin creșterea gradului de toleranță al profesorilor, informarea lor permanentă în ceea ce privește egalitatea de șanse în educație;
- sporirea gradului de obiectivitate a profesorilor, în special în cadrul procesului de evaluare;
- introducerea uniformelor în toate școlile, măsură ce poate contribui la reducerea diferențelor sociale dintre elevi etc..

Din cea de-a doua categorie, pot fi menționate următoarele propuneri ale repondenților:

- sancționarea profesorilor care utilizează practici educaționale discriminatorii, prin avertismente și alte tipuri de măsuri;
- limitarea dreptului de a-și exercita profesia pentru o perioadă de timp și chiar excluderea din sistemul de învățământ;
- supravegherea riguroasă a cadrelor didactice, prin verificarea orelor de curs/asistență la ore, montarea de camere de supraveghere etc..

Concluzii

Analiza și interpretarea datelor obținute în cadrul studiului investigativ întreprins au generat următoarele idei concluzive:

- discriminarea este un fenomen prezent în spațiul educațional, fenomen care, de cele mai multe ori, nu este gestionat adecvat;
- principalii factori care stau la baza practicilor discriminatorii ale profesorilor sunt: mediul socio-familial de proveniență al elevilor, etnia, dizabilitățile fizice/psihice, religia și genul;
- mediul socio-familial și etnia reprezintă factori determinanți ai succesului/insuccesului școlar;
- demersul evaluativ este amprentat pregnant de practicile discriminatorii ale profesorilor.

În acest context, pentru a preveni și combate discriminarea în sala de clasă, considerăm necesar ca profesorii să implementeze practici educaționale prin care să demonstreze și să cultive respectul pentru diversitate, promovând metodele și tehnicile interactive, încurajând învățarea prin colaborare, comunicarea instituită între elevi și interînvățarea în grupuri de lucru eterogene. Astfel, elevii își vor „împărtăși” din propriile valori, vor învăța să empatizeze cu un altul *diferit*, să accepte perspective și puncte de vedere diferite de ale lor, vor învăța toleranța și respectul pentru alteritate, pentru diversitate, având ca model comportamentul didactic al propriilor profesori.

De asemenea, echitatea trebuie să devină o componentă intrinsecă a demersului educațional, elevii fiind ajutați să decripteze și să internalizeze semnificația aserțiunii „ne naștem egali”, deci avem aceleași drepturi fundamentale. În același timp însă, vor înțelege că orice practică, orice comportament sau atitudine care intră în contradicție cu drepturile omului este condamnabil(ă), fiind etichetat(ă) ca intoleranță, discriminare, rasism etc..

Pentru a asigura asimilarea corectă a semnificației conceptului *echitate*, primii care trebuie să exemplifice „transferul” în conduită al principiului echității sunt profesorii. „Astfel, echitatea accesului la resurse educaționale, a participării la actul educativ, dar și echitatea din punct de vedere al așteptărilor față de performanțele școlare și de competențele copiilor, sunt condiții fără de care elevul nu va conștientiza cu ușurință necesitatea de a respecta, la rândul său, principiul echității” (Ivasiuc, Koreck, Kővári, 2010, 15-16).

Cultivând respectul pentru diversitate, promovând practici bazate pe echitate, respectându-și elevii, indiferent de apartenența lor la o anumită etnie, religie sau cultură, cadrele didactice vor asigura un fundament solid pentru educația interculturală.

Astfel, interculturalitatea va fi nu numai o componentă a școlii, în ansamblu, ci se va regăsi în fiecare clasă, în conduita didactică a fiecărui profesor și va avea corespondent în atitudinea și comportamentul fiecărui elev.

Chiar dacă procesul de formare a competenței interculturale își poate găsi un cadru propice pe oricare dintre palierele educației – formal, nonformal, informal –, fundamentul acestei competențe este asigurat, în principal, prin intermediul activităților instructiv-educative derulate în școală. Reperele care orientează munca profesorilor în acest sens vizează formarea capacității de:

- ✓ a coopera cu colegii pentru soluționarea sarcinilor primite;
- ✓ a construi împreună cu ceilalți elevi un cod comportamental comun, privind reacțiile lor în situații de credințe, norme, principii, valori, divergențe de opinii;

- ✓ a conștientiza caracteristicile propriei persoane, caracteristici derivate din mediul cultural de proveniență și a le valorifica în contexte corespunzătoare;
- ✓ a observa și evalua comportamentele colegilor, în vederea raportării comparative la acestea;
- ✓ a stabili anumite repere (modele de personalitate, elemente simbolice) și a le urmări pe parcursul evoluției proprii;
- ✓ a se adapta și integra într-un colectiv, în medii interculturale (Mara, 2008, 75).

Facilitând realizarea acestor „achiziții”, cultivând sistematic valorile pedagogice circumscrise educației interculturale - deschiderea față de celălalt, toleranța, respectul pentru diversitate, acceptarea celuilalt, diferit de sine etc., profesorii demonstrează eficiența propriei competențe interculturale și transformă diferențele dintre elevi în surse ale dezvoltării personale și sociale.

Pentru a putea pune în practică toate acestea, profesorii trebuie să valorifice maximal potențialul fiecărui elev, să manifeste expectații înalte față de toți elevii și să stabilească relații suportive și constructive cu aceștia (Pollard, 2008).

Astfel, școala și clasa de elevi nu vor mai fi spațiu al discriminării, al conflictelor și tensiunilor, ci medii, prin excelență, ale comunicării și relaționării armonioase, ale cooperării și valorizării tuturor; medii cu adevărat democratice, bazate pe respectul față de celălalt, indiferent de cine este acesta, de etnie, religie sau model cultural de apartenență.

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THE IMPACT OF COUNSELLING ACTIVITIES ON THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF 1ST GRADE STUDENTS

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Abstract: The paper presents the results of the experimental research that has investigated the impact of counseling classes and to emotional intelligence and school performance of pupils. At the formative experiment were attended 38 pupils from two primary first classes. It was implemented in the first semester of school year 2010 -2011, with the teachers' support of the two classes.

The results demonstrate the efficiency of counseling activity in increasing emotional intelligence highlighting the impact of personal variables without being able to confirm its influence on school performance too.

Keywords: pupils, emotional intelligence, counseling classes,

Inteligența emoțională și dezvoltarea ei în școală

Deși introdus în psihologia științifică doar în anul 1990 de Salovey și John D. Mayer, conceptul de *intelență emoțională* a cunoscut de-a lungul timpului numeroase încercări de conceptualizare. Inițial a fost definit „*abilitatea de a monitoriza sentimentele proprii și a celor din jur, de a diferenția între ele și de a folosi această informație pentru ghidarea acțiunilor sau gândirii cuiva*” (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, pg. 333). Goleman definea inteligența emoțională ca fiind „*capacitatea unei persoane de a fi în stare să se motiveze și să persevereze în fața frustărilor; de a-și stăpâni impulsurile și de a amâna satisfacțiile; de a-și regla stările de spirit și de a împiedica necazurile să-i întunece gândirea; de a fi stăruitor și de a spera*” (Goleman, 2001, pg.50); sau „*un set de trăsături – unii l-ar putea numi caracter – care contează imens în destinul nostru personal*” (Goleman, 2001, pg.52); Reuven Bar-On: „*o gamă de aptitudini, competențe și calități ne-cognitive care pot influența capacitatea unei persoane de a reuși să facă față presiunilor și solicitărilor mediului*” (Stein & Book, 2003, pg.14); Salovey și Mayer: „*capacitatea de a percepe emoțiile, de a accesa și genera emoții astfel încât să vină în sprijinul gândirii, de a înțelege emoțiile și semnificația acestora și de a regla în mod eficient emotivitatea pentru a determina îmbunătățirea evoluției emoționale și intelectuale*” (Stein & Book, 2003, pg. 14).

Indiferent la care dintre modelul conceptual aderăm, nu putem să nu conștientizăm importanța inteligenței emoționale în viața de zi cu zi și necesitatea dezvoltării acesteia. De-a lungul nivelurilor de educație parcurse de copii, toate disciplinele își asumă o parte din responsabilitatea privind dezvoltarea inteligenței emoționale. Prin introducerea disciplinei *Consiliere și orientare* focalizarea pe aceasta devine mai explicită. Parcurgând activitățile propuse în acest curriculum, elevii vor dobândi abilități atât de necesare reușitei în viață. Rolul cel mai important în acest demers îl au primele două module: *Autocunoaștere și dezvoltare personală și Managementul emoțiilor*. Cu toate acestea, misiunea majoră a sistemului de învățământ, în conștiința multor educatori și învățători, este aceea de a dezvolta abilitățile academice (scris, citit, socotit) ale elevului, pierzând din atenție competențele sociale și emoționale. Deși, inteligența emoțională este considerată a fi distinctă de

inteligența generală și responsabilă de obținerea succesului în viață, numeroase studii susțin că inteligența emoțională relaționează moderat cu competențele sociale și succesul academic.

Vaibhav P. Birwatkar în *Emotional Intelligence: Lessons in Learning to Learn Research Scholar* susține legătura dintre inteligența emoțională și cea academică astfel *”Copiii se ridică la cel mai înalt nivel academic atunci când emoțional se simt în siguranță, încurajați și apreciați, într-o atmosferă educațională bazată pe optimism și empatie...Capacitatea de a-și percepe propriile emoții, de a le decodifica și de a depăși o stare de spirit negativă are o influență crucială asupra sănătății mentale a elevului, echilibrul psihic influențând în mod decisiv rezultatele sale academice. Inteligența emoțională ar putea acționa ca un catalizator al ogindirii abilităților cognitive în performanța școlară.”* (<http://www.moodle.ro/preparandia/images/stiri/educationart.pdf>)

Pornind de la toate aceste date, ne-am propus să urmărim care este nivelul inteligenței emoționale în cazul elevilor din clasa I, dacă activitatea de consiliere realizată de învățători poate avea vreo contribuție la dezvoltarea inteligenței emoționale a elevilor și dacă există vreo legătura între aceasta și performanțele școlare obținute de ei.

Metoda

2.1.Scopul cercetării

Investigarea impactului orelor de consiliere asupra inteligenței emoționale și a performanțelor școlare, la elevii din clasa I.

2.2 Obiectivele cercetării

O.1 Urmărirea impactului orelor de consiliere asupra nivelului inteligenței emoționale, în cazul elevilor din clasa I;

O.2 Determinarea legăturii dintre inteligența emoțională și variabila gen, la elevii de clasa I.

O.3 Identificarea relației dintre nivelul inteligenței emoționale și performanțele școlare ale elevilor din clasa I.

2.3. Ipotezele cercetării

Ipoteza 1: Se presupune că majoritatea elevilor din clasa I evaluați au un nivel al inteligenței emoționale mediu.

Ipoteza 2: Se presupune că în clasa I, fetele au un nivel al inteligenței emoționale mai ridicat decât băieții.

Ipoteza 3: Se presupune că în urma participării la programul de consiliere elevii vor înregistra o creștere a inteligenței emoționale.

Ipoteza 4: Se presupune că elevii cu un nivel ridicat al inteligenței emoționale au performanțe școlare mai ridicate.

2.4. Metodele și instrumentele de cercetare:

În vederea atingerii obiectivelor propuse am utilizat ca instrument de evaluare „*Test pentru inteligență emoțională*” - (varianta pentru copii), elaborat de Goleman și adaptat de Mihaela Roco (Roco, 2001). Fără a avea pretenția utilizării unui test foarte performant în acest sens, apreciem că ne oferă totuși o imagine de ansamblu asupra nivelului inteligenței emoționale.

După completarea testului am putut obține patru niveluri de dezvoltare a inteligenței emoționale. Până la 100 puncte - inteligență sub nivelul mediu, 100-150 puncte- inteligență nivel mediu; 150-190- inteligență deasupra nivelului mediu și 200 puncte nivel excepțional.

Pentru programul de consiliere am utilizat metode interactive de lucru între care amintim: jocul didactic, jocul de rol, conversația, povestirea, explicația, demonstrația, problematizarea, mima, desenul, experimentul, benzile desenate etc.

2.5. Subiecții

Au fost supuși investigației 38 de elevi de clasa I. Eșantionul A format din 19 elevi din clasa I.B reprezentând grupul experimental; eșantionul B format din 19 elevi de la același gimnaziu, clasa IA reprezentând grupul de control .

2.6. Design-ul cercetării

Cercetarea experimentală a fost structurată în două etape, astfel:

- * Etapa de pre-testare (cu evaluarea celor 38 de subiecți incluși în program);
- * Etapa experimentului formativ – intervenția propriu-zisă, finalizată cu reevaluarea celor 38 de subiecți;

Designul utilizat este unul experimental de bază, tip I, cu o variabilă independentă (programul de consiliere).

Variabila dependentă este inteligența emoțională;

2.7. Perioada de cercetare

Cercetarea s-a derulat în semestrul I al anului școlar 2011-2012. Pre testarea a fost realizată în luna septembrie iar re testarea în luna ianuarie.

2.8. Rezultatele obținute și analiza datelor

Analiza datelor obținute au condus la validarea ipotezelor, după cum urmează:

În urma aplicarea și coterării rezultatelor testului inițial, administrat atât grupei experimentale cât și celei de control, am constatat că majoritatea elevilor au un nivel al inteligenței emoționale, sub mediu -58% dintre cei evaluați. 42% dintre elevii evaluați au inteligența emoțională de nivel mediu. Aspectul neașteptat este că nici unul dintre elevii evaluați nu au obținut scoruri care să demonstreze un nivel peste mediu sau excepțional al inteligenței emoționale. Aceste date nu permit confirmarea primei ipoteze potrivit căreia majoritatea elevilor din clasa I au un nivel mediu al inteligenței emoționale. Calcularea mediei obținute pentru fiecare eșantion în parte, a evidențiat o diferență de 15.53 între mediile obținute de cele două grupe, grupa experimentală realizând o medie de 74.21 iar cea de control de 89,74. Aceste rezultate vin să confirme o dată în plus faptul că azi se acordă o atenție prea mică dezvoltării competențelor emoționale ale copiilor și nevoia unor programe de intervenție orientate în acest sens.

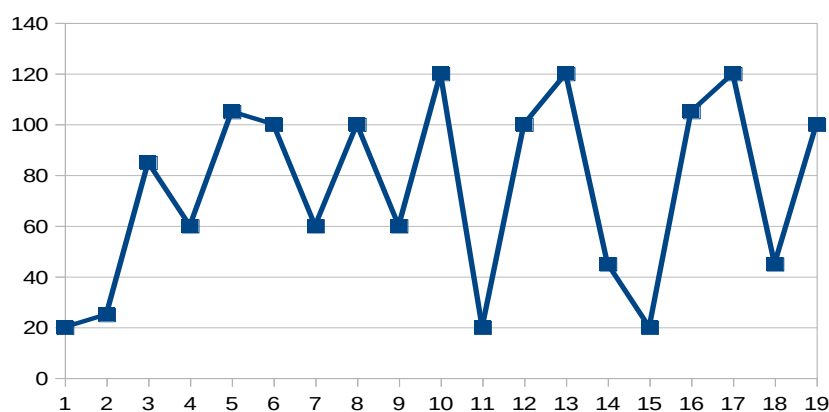


Figura 1. Rezultate - pretestare grup experimental

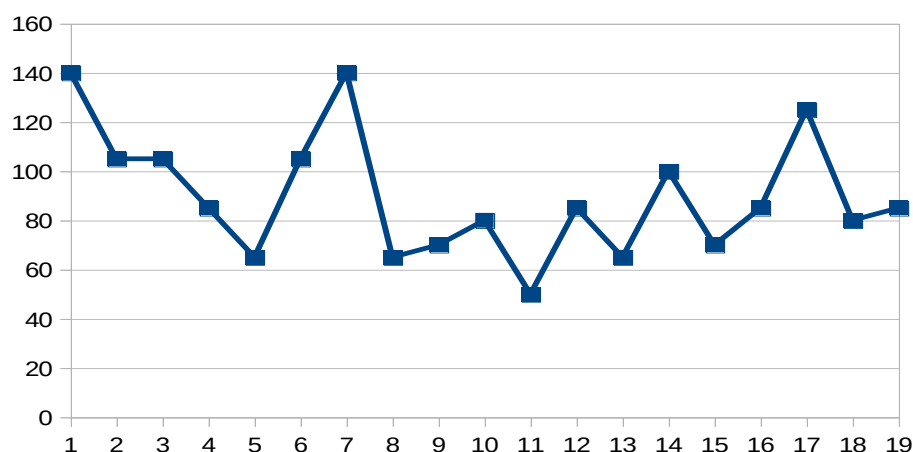


Figura 2. Rezultate pretestare- grup de control.

Rezultatele obținute atât la pre-test cât și la post-test au permis însă validarea ipotezei numărul 2 potrivit căreia *în clasa I fetele au un nivel al inteligenței emoționale mai ridicat decât băieții*. Aceasta ar însemna că fetele au deja abilități emoționale mai bune. Rezultatele sunt în acord și cu rezultatele altor studii care demonstrează că fetele au o capacitate de reglare emoțională și exprimare a emoțiilor mai bună decât băieții fapt determinat parțial și de educația primită din familie care încurajează anumite manifestări la fete și le descurajează la băieți. Pe de altă parte, așa după cum demonstrează Else-Quest et al. (Else-Quest et al, 2006 cit de Eliot, 2011, p. 241) principala diferență dintre fete și băieți este legată de controlul inhibitor și de aptitudinile verbale mai bune ale fetelor care facilitează adaptarea, interacțiunea, exprimarea emoției. Aceste diferențe sunt foarte vizibile între vârsta de 3 și 13 ani.

În urma derulării programului de consiliere în cazul elevilor din grupul experimental și retestării elevilor din perspectiva inteligenței emoționale, am obținut o creștere a valorii mediei obținute cu 18,94 de la 74,21 la 93,15. În cazul grupului de control, am remarcat o creștere a valorii mediei inteligenței emoționale doar cu 0,79, de la 89,74 la 90,53.

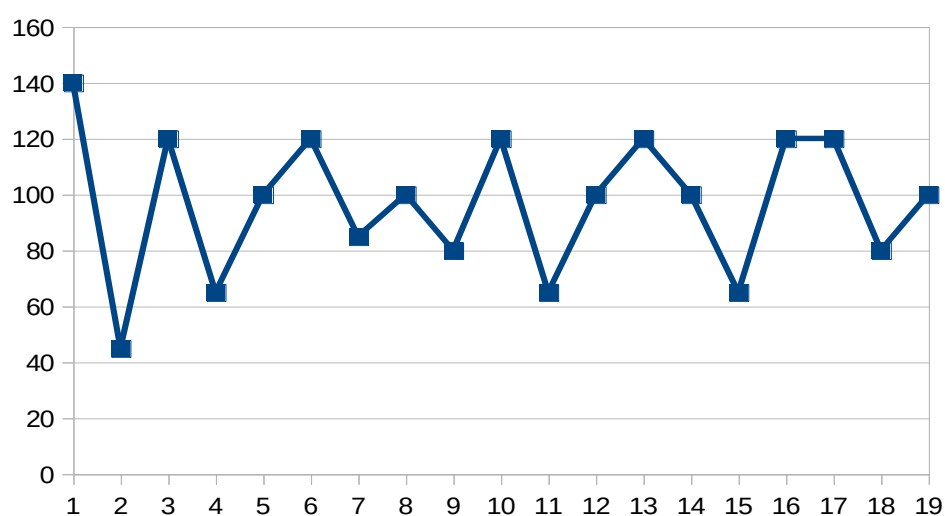


Figura 3 Rezultate post testare grup experimental

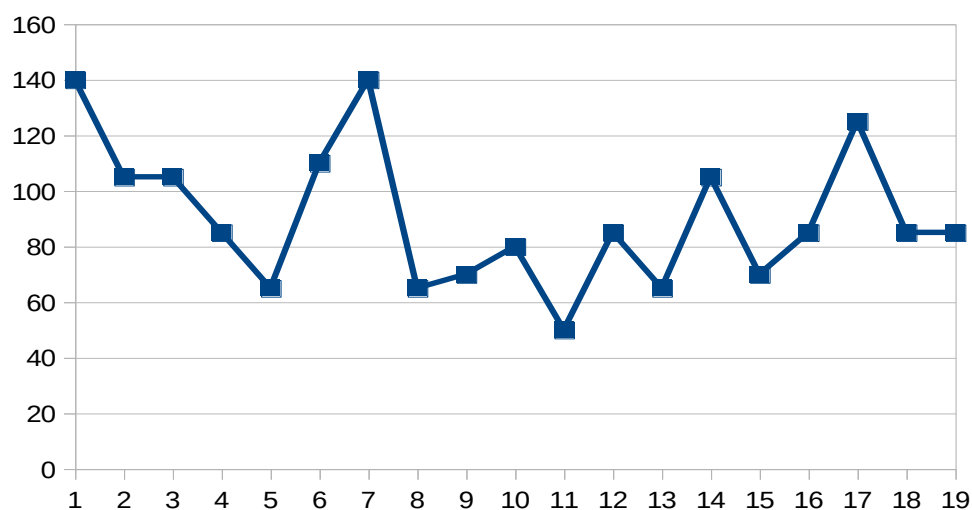


Figura 4 Rezultate post testare grup de control

Aceste date permit validarea ipotezei.

Demersurile inițiate în vederea verificării validității ipotezei prin care am presupus că elevii cu un nivel ridicat al inteligenței emoționale au performanțe școlare mai ridicate nu ne-au permis să tragem niște concluzii. Inițial am dorit să ne raportăm la o medie generală a semestrului I, piezând din vedere rolul mai degraba motivant al calificativelor din primul semestru al clasei I, fără legătură prea mare cu performanțele școlare. Astfel că în cele două clase de elevii, toți aveau media Fb. Prin urmare, rămâne să putem verifica validitatea ipotezei, reevaluând acești elevi în clasa a doua.

Concluzii

Datele obținute în urma cercetării realizate au arătat că cei mai mulți dintre elevii clasei I, (58% dintre cei evaluați) prezintă inteligență emoțională dezvoltată la un nivel sub cel mediu. În cazul fetelor, nivelul inteligenței emoționale este mai ridicat decât în cazul băieților. În urma participării la orele de Consiliere și orientare, nivelul inteligenței emoționale a cunoscut o creștere importantă prin comparație cu situația neparticipării la aceste ore – în cazul grupului de control.

În concluzie, putem afirma că introducerea orelor de *Consiliere și orientare* se impune cu necesitate în învățământul românesc, cu atât mai mult cu cât dincolo de alte beneficii, acestea pot avea un aport ridicat la dezvoltarea inteligenței emoționale a copiilor facilitând astfel adaptarea cu succes la viața socială și profesională a viitorilor adulți.

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SCHOOL STUDENT STRESS IN ROMANIA

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Abstract. Going global is hardly valid for Romanian schools. The network of reasons for this delay is pretty complex, including economic and social factors and, to be sure, psychological factors as well. They actually overlap, one dimension now coming first to be gradually substituted for another, as the case may be. Distress / exhaustion / overwork is our primary choice, and we will refer it to a large group of 4,100 school students in Transylvania and Moldavia. We next look into the causes (objective and subjective) and then look for prevention modalities and ways to avoid this deadlock. The case of the commuters is then analysed, the three above-quoted dimensions now being supplemented with data on the biological factors involved in the process. We finally look into the possible solutions to take with a view to getting the globalization of the Romanian school system.

Keywords: Romanian school; student; distress; overwork; globalization.

Introduction

A specific feature of childhood is that during this period the body experiences a maximum of somatic development. Because development, together with adaptability and school performance, is one of the chief components of health, the organization of the pupils' daily regime under hygienic conditions is of great importance, both medically and psychologically. The explanation resides in the fact that a smoothly running educational activity makes a contribution towards promoting students' health in all its complexity.

The complex character of life in general and especially the objective circumstances in schools may constitute real obstacles to organizing a system of hygienic living in all respects. Consequently, it is impossible to act in this regard on the basis of universally valid rules of conduct or according to rigid schemes.

The need of taking into consideration certain physiological and hygienic requirements when establishing the educational program appears as undeniable.

In order to ensure maximum performances in school without endangering the health of the pupils, their daily schedule must evolve according to the "stage" that the body is at. This means that activities must coincide with recovery stage of the body, while rest stages must be set when recovery is necessary due to tiredness.

School burnout, unlike ordinary physical fatigue, cannot be relieved by rest, because it is a medical condition with both immediate consequences, such as reduced efficiency, and belated ones, such as increasing the likelihood of infectious diseases (tuberculosis, acute viral hepatitis) or psychosomatic diseases (peptic ulcer, hypertension, biliary dyskinesia, etc.) due to the general decrease of the pupils' body resistance to aggressions in their environment (microbial and viral agents, "enjoyable toxins" such as smoking and alcohol, food factors, etc.)

For these reasons, efforts should be made to compile a rational and hygienic school schedule.

Educational activity requires ensuring rhythm and variety in order not to overly increase

the effort of the students. At the same time, discontinuity or an excess of relaxation are also not advisable because they interrupt the normal regime of nerve activity, gained through training, and its subsequent recovery requires new effort and unnecessarily spent time.

In addition to decreased school performance (up to the so-called phenomenon of “resigning” school, characterized by lack of involvement in school work and refusal to attend school), deviations from these factors also generate a series of aberrant behavioral responses (educational maladjustment), which sometimes end in juvenile delinquency.

Of major importance is, in this respect, the intellectual activity, which, when rationally organized, represents a means of promoting the mental health of the students and implicitly school performance. However, when it is faultily organized, it becomes (at first) a factor of fatigue, which may be recovered through recreation (sport exercises, walking outdoors) or passive rest (sleep), and finally an intellectual burnout factor.

Pupils are subjected to continuous stress, dealing both with the pressure of teachers when they are at school and with that of the family when at home. Parents often accustom their children to a fast and tiring pace.

Medical work in the field of educational and vocational orientation is based on a series of laws such as the Romanian “Health Insurance Act” of 1978, which states the mandatory character of the comprehensive health assessment for orientation towards high schools, vocational schools, and higher education.

School orientation begins with the child being declared fit for schooling at the age of 6 / 7 years, if the child’s physical and mental development is normal. The school debut may be postponed if there is a delay in the neuropsychic or physical development of the child, a sensory impairment or a chronic condition which leads to a low adaptational capacity of the child to school requirements.

Students who have been professionally wrongly oriented at the end of the middle school or who fell ill during their school education and are entirely unfit for the original job profile can be redirected to another profile (job). There are provisions of the Ministry of Health and of the Ministry of Education for transferring students from one profile to another. In this manner, their health is protected and their wishes of performing a certain job / profession, like the other pupils, are taken into account as much as possible.

For students with certain health deficiencies, certain professions can not be recommended.

The school physician who also performs counseling activities in educational and vocational guidance should indicate, on the basis of specific criteria, the academic profile that is not recommended in relation to the possible condition or disease of the student. To this purpose, the school doctor, together with the occupational physician, must take into account the type of condition that the student has.

It is mandatory for the doctor to know all the characteristics of the trades which are not recommended for students / graduates of middle schools and / or high schools.

School medicine has long been an essential part of modern educational process. For many years the “white coats” have been a safety factor in Romanian schools, both by addressing emergency medical situations and by the constant supervision of the growth and development of preschool children, school children and adolescents. In recent years, the state of school medicine in Romania has improved, but it is still far from ideal. Low salaries and

insufficient equipment still keep many graduates of medicine away from this field.

School medicine is a branch with tradition in our country, the first attempts dating back to the period immediately following the Second World War, with the French system of medicine as a model.

Over the years, school medicine has alternatively been under the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education.

Since 1948, school medicine has operated under the Ministry of Health and it is the only branch of medicine financed from the state budget. In addition to the branches devoted to school children and to university students, respectively, it includes pre-school medicine, which is practiced in medical offices in kindergartens and / or nurseries.

In the 2004-2005 school year, the activity was included in the Ministry of Health's work program has been since known as the "National Community Health Program No. 1".

According to The law of Medical Assistance for kindergarten pupils, pupils and university students, it is regulated by the Ministry of Health and Family Order No. 653 / 2001, which stipulates for a school doctor for 2000-2500 students.

Occupational disease is defined as an affliction that occurs as a result of exercising a trade or profession, being caused by certain physical, chemical or biological noxious agents, which are characteristic of the workplace. Occupational disease can also be triggered by the overuse of various organs and systems of the body during the work process, including intellectual work. Illnesses suffered by pupils and students during their practical training are considered to be occupational diseases. The difference between work accidents and occupational diseases resides in the fact that occupational diseases occur slowly, due to the action of various factors (listed above) which act on the human body, and are not the result of a direct and sudden action.

In the case of pupils, declines in health, caused by risk factors in the educational process, can be detected during the general medical examinations by the school physician, working in cooperation with the occupational physician.

Health-related information on educational and vocational guidance of pupils or students are useful for the teachers, counselors, form teachers, parents, school physicians, family physicians, as well as for the student / teenager's family.

To prevent mismatches between the skills of students and their initially selected educational / professional path, it is required to diagnose their present as well as future health through medical examinations that are conducted at certain ages, moments that should be seen as important transitions from an educational cycle to another.

A general medical examination is made at the end of a school cycle.

As far as students with health problems are concerned, they are directed either to a particular school profile or to special education, a decision based on the conclusions of the general medical examinations and of the results received from specialists.

This module reviews the main moments of advice and guidance, the stages that students follow, according to their age. In order to efficiently guide the students, doctors and teachers must know not only the anatomical and functional characteristics of each student, but also their skills, the educational paths they may follow, the practical activities they may carry out and the practical activities that are performed in school workshops or in the businesses where the practical training is carried out.

Orientation is defined as the totality of educational, social and medical activities that help the young people to freely develop their personality. In student orientation, the best educational and professional route should always be chosen, depending on the student's skills and motivations.

Educational activity includes a preliminary activity which aims to identify the personality of each student, so that the student will be properly guided towards the appropriate type of school for his intellectual skills. Educational orientation intertwines with professional orientation, through which young people are given the chance of a professional path, taking into account their physical, intellectual and psychomotor skills.

In addition to general aspects, both educational guidance and professional orientation involve different medical aspects related to certain deficiencies that children may have.

For both healthy children and those with illnesses or disabilities, an important role is played by the school physician, who is qualified to specify the types of activities that are appropriate to their morpho-functional peculiarities and to which they should be directed.

The legal medical basis for medical guidance is The General Rules for Labor Protection, developed by the Ministry of Labour in 1996.

In the health surveillance of children and adolescents it is necessary to be aware of the mutual relations between education and health, as well as of the correlation between the quality of the learning process and health. Both aspects are the responsibility not only of educators and physicians, but of the entire society, including parents.

In order to properly carry out the medical activity of educational and professional orientation, the physician must be familiar with the educational routes / tracks of the students, because he or she is one of those who will contribute to guiding them towards a certain profile in the next school stages.

Materials and working method

Following an extensive literature review of the stress causing factors among both teachers and pupils in mainstream schools, we applied an anonymous questionnaire in order to obtain information regarding the level of satisfaction with the occupational / academic microclimate, as well as their opinion on professional overload and on the ability to cope with the duties and responsibilities that they have.

The study included 1,600 teachers, employed in pre-university educational institutions in urban and rural areas of the counties Braşov, Botoşani, Iaşi and Vaslui.

The inclusion criteria for the selection of the teachers:

- pre-university level teacher – primary school teacher or teacher for a specific discipline
- employee of an educational unit in one of the specified counties
- consent to participate in the study
- approval from the school to conduct the research

Criteria for exclusion from the study:

- refusal to participate in the study
- lack of consent from the educational institution to implement the questionnaires in the establishment

The survey also includes a group of 4,100 students enrolled in educational units in the counties of Braşov, Botoşani, Iaşi and Vaslui.

The inclusion criteria by which the students were selected:

- students in grades 5-12 from schools in urban and rural counties of Braşov, Botoşani, Iaşi and Vaslui.
- arts and crafts schools
- enrolled in the schools during the period of the study
- consent to participate in the study

Criteria for exclusion from the study:

- refusal to participate in the study
- lack of parental consent for the student to be included in research
- lack of consent from the educational institution to implement the questionnaires in the establishment

In addition to the questionnaires, a general medical examination was conducted for a total of 3,220 students from schools in Braşov, grades 5-12. The examination includes data regarding medical, social and lifestyle aspects.

Medical aspects:

- *anthropometric indicators of weight and height development*: weight, height, chest circumference, abdominal circumference, hip circumference, blood pressure and pulse, BMI;
- *medical history*: birth weight, birth rank, APGAR score, breastfeeding duration, menarche
- *medical conditions*: acute, chronic, eye (glasses, refraction errors) and dental conditions, number of days / school year with medical excuses, medical excuse from physical education class – motivation (diagnosis).

Social aspects:

- Parents' education level and their age at the birth of the child, type of dwelling, number of people in the family, number of rooms, monthly income of the family

Lifestyle aspects:

- *eating behavior*: amount of sodium in the diet, number of meals / day, dairy consumption, breakfast, school sandwich, fast food, cola, chips, nuts, energy drinks (type), coffee;
- *behavior that is detrimental to the health*: parents who are consumers of tobacco and alcohol (type);
- *daily activity hygiene*: sleep duration / 24 hours, morning / afternoon school program, number of school hours / day, number of study hours / day (school, at home, at the weekend, tutoring / week), subjects considered to be demanding, afternoon rest, practicing sports (physical exercise), hours spent at the computer, watching television, age when starting school, average mark at the end of the grade.

The questionnaires were applied during 2010, 2011, 2012 and were completed by self registration under the guidance and supervision of the interviewer.

The questionnaire observed the methodology of scientific research by including:

- 7 items to characterize the groups;
- 35 items for testing the satisfaction with the occupational / school microclimate.

The questionnaire contained questions with pre-formulated answers (scale) and was pre-tested in one pilot group consisting of 5 teachers and 5 students. The subjects participating in the pilot study were excluded from the research itself.

The ethics of scientific research were upheld, including the anonymity of the data in the study and obtaining the consent for participating in the research from the subjects (teachers and students), the students' parents and from the school management.

The data was processed by statistical and mathematical methods and presented in Microsoft Excel.

Results and discussion

Characterization of the students. The data analysis in Table 1 and the graphical representation in Figure 1 show that over three quarters of all students in the study - 78.54 % - come from Braşov county. Pupils from Iaşi account for 11.71% of the total number, 5.56% come from Vaslui county and 4.20 % are from Botoşani.

Table 1. Distribution of students according to county of origin

	Total	Braşov	Botoşani	Iaşi	Vaslui
Total	4100	3220	172	480	228
	100%	78.54%	4.20%	11.71%	5.56%

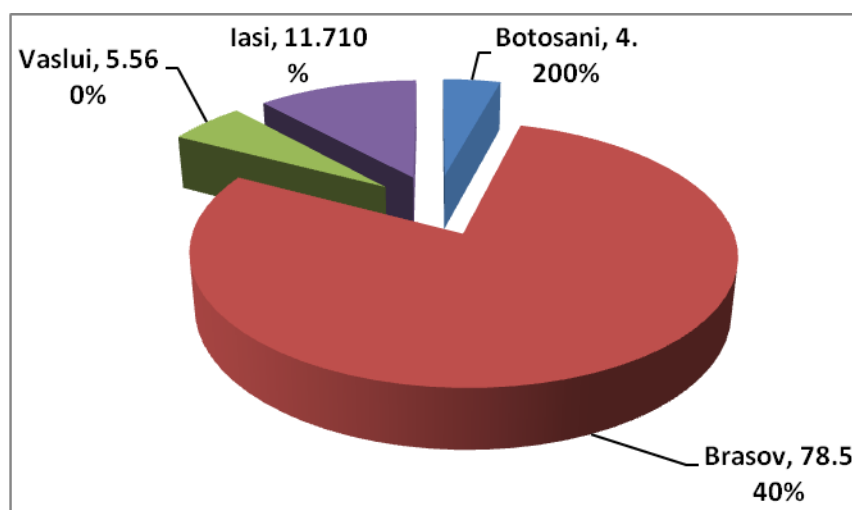


Figure 1. Percentage of students according to county of origin

The distribution of the students in the study according to the origin shows that the largest share - 84.41% - is held by students in urban areas, and the remaining 15.59% are rural. (Table 2, Figure 2)

Table 2. Distribution of students according to background area

	Total	Urban areas	Rural areas
Total	4100	3461	639
	100%	84.41%	15.59%

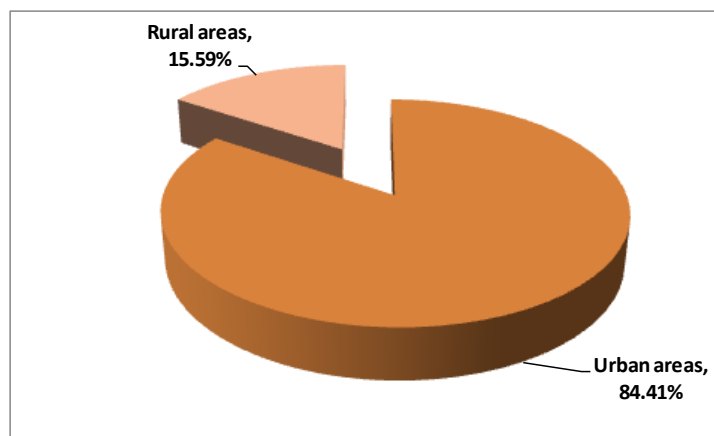


Figure 2. Percentage of students according to background area

The distribution of students according to gender shows that over half of the subjects, namely 55.02%, are female, and over two-fifths - 44.98 % - are male. (Table 3, Figure 3)

Table 3. Distribution of students according to gender

	Total	Male	Female
Total	4100	1844	2256
	100%	44.98%	55.02%

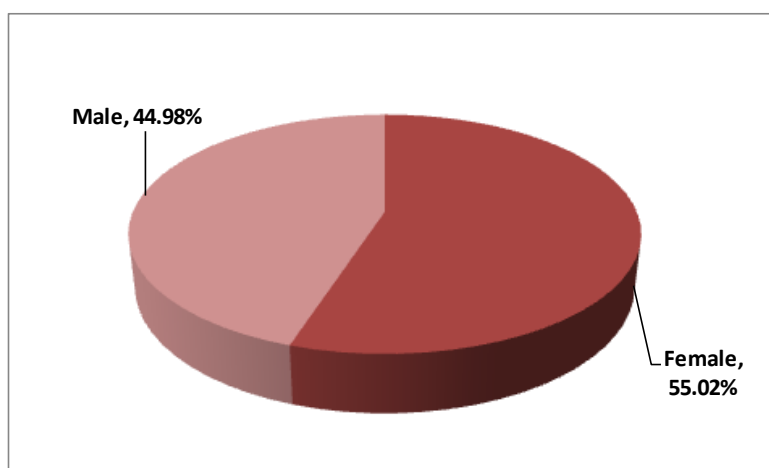


Figure 3. Percentage of students according to gender

The analysis of the data in Table 4 and the graph in Figure 4 show that more than half of the subjects included in the study, representing 53.41%, pertain to the 10-14 years old age group. Over a fifth of them - 42.80 % - were aged 15-19 years. A share of 2.88% is held by the 20-24 years old group and the remaining 0.89% are aged 25-47.

The higher ages of the subjects are explained by the inclusion in the study of students who attend a vocational school, as enrollment in this form of education is not conditional on age.

Table 4. Distribution of students according to age group

Age group		Total	
		4100	100%
Total number of students	10-14 years	2190	53.41
	15-19 years	1755	42.8
	20-24 years	118	2.88
	25-29 years	10	0.24
	30-34 years	12	0.29
	35-39 years	12	0.29
	40-44 years	1	0.02
	45-47 years	2	0.05

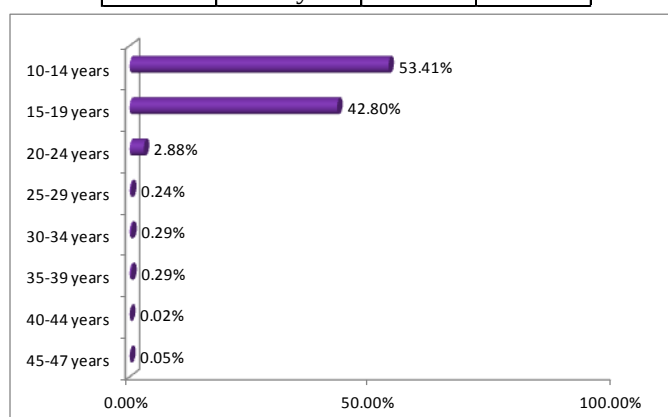


Figure 4. Percentage of students according to age group

From the distribution of subjects according to grade of study, it can be noticed that a fifth - 20.56 % - are students in 8th grade; almost equal shares of 14.88%, 14.56% and 14.00% are held by pupils in 12th, 7th and 5th grade, respectively. A percentage of 12.93% are in 6th grade, 9.17% are students in the 9th grade, 7.76 % are in the 11th grade, while 10th graders have a share of 4.02% of the total and students in arts and crafts schools are 2.12 % of the total sample size.

Table 5. Distribution of students according to grade			
Grade		Total	
		4100	100%
Grade of study	5th grade	574	14
	6th grade	530	12.93
	7th grade	597	14.56
	8th grade	843	20.56
	9th grade	376	9.17
	10th grade	165	4.02
	11th grade	318	7.76
	12th grade	610	14.88
	Arts and crafts schools	87	2.12

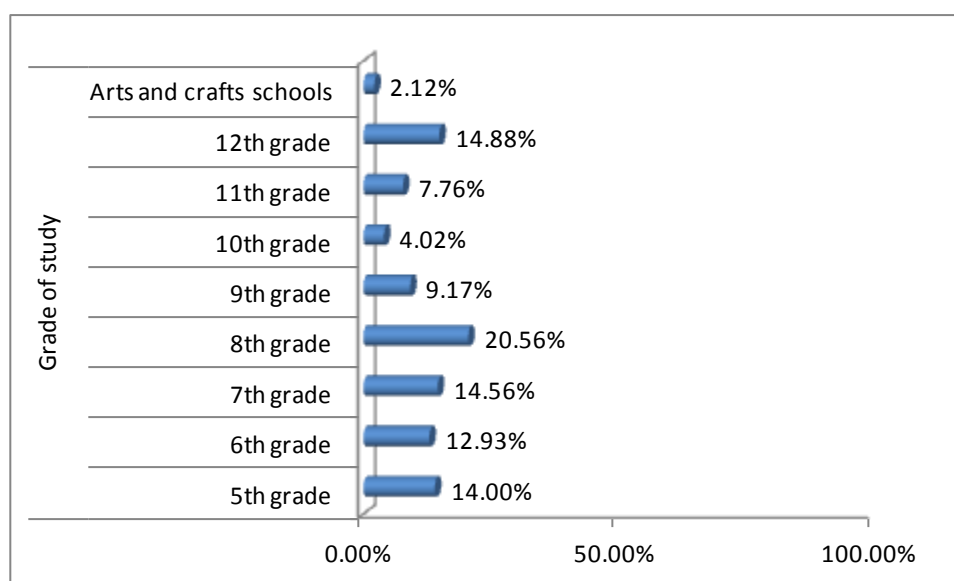
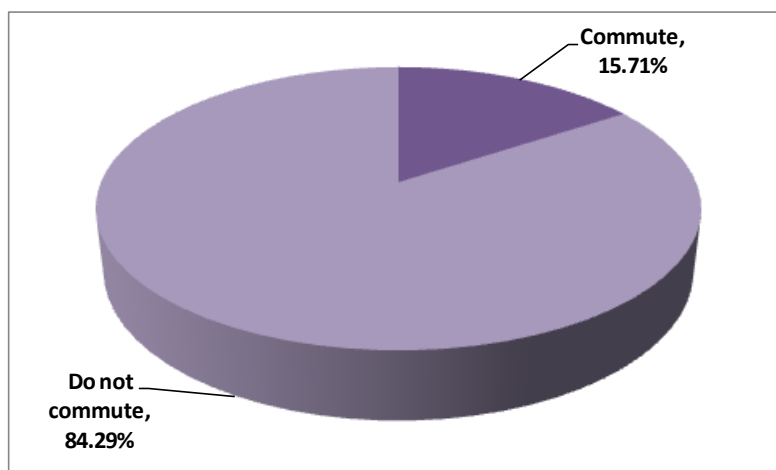


Figure 5. Percentage of students according to grade

The analysis of the data in Table 6 and the graph in Figure 6 show that the majority of the pupils - 84.29% - say they do not have to commute and 15.71% of the students state that they commute to and from the school they attend. (Table 6, Figure 6)

Table 6. Distribution of students who commute to and from school

	Total	Commute	Do not commute
Total	4100	644	3456
	100%	15.71%	84.29%

**Figure 6. Percentage of students who commute to and from school**

Conclusions

More than half of the teachers surveyed are employed in Braşov County schools. Most of the teachers belong to an urban environment, almost three quarters are women and two-thirds of the teachers, regardless of origin, are 30 to 49 years old.

Our research has found that nearly half of the respondents (49.13%) have a level I didactical qualification; over 82.81% of the respondents are teachers, almost half (49.32%) have been employed in the current unit of pre-university education for 1 to 10 years, and over two-fifths (43.82%) have between 11 and 30 years of constant activity in the same unit, regardless of their provenance.

More than three-quarters of the students in the study come from pre-university schooling units belonging to Braşov County, with only 15.59% of the respondents belonging to the rural areas of the four counties studied. The total group (combined average and counties total) is predominantly female.

Only 3.77% of the students are more than 20 years of age, all of them being enlisted in arts and crafts schooling units. Over 80.00% of subjects say they do not have to commute to and from the educational institution they attend.

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THE ANALYSIS OF THE PERFORMANCE OF THE HUNGARIAN CONFESSIONAL SCHOOLS IN BIHOR AND SATU MARE COUNTIES

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Abstract: After the collapse of communism, the confessional schools seemed to be potential elite-training institutions. The favourable preconditions included the specific value-oriented small groups in which the teaching activities could be organized, the general trust of the Hungarian population and example from other Eastern-Central European countries, especially from Hungary, where such institutions offered a higher level of education than the average public institutions.

In our paper we offer a comprehensive analysis of all the achievements and failures of these institutions in North-Western Romania, in Bihor and Satu Mare counties. We will not only show if this optimism was realistic, looking back after 20 years, but we will also analyze the various factors which led to these results.

Keywords: confessional education, secular education, value systems, educational achievements, social support

The confessional elements in the public and higher education have been seen for centuries as an organic element of the society. There's little to wonder about it, as many major artistic, philosophic and scientific movements from the middle ages until the XIX century all fought in a way against the religious dominance in the spheres of culture, science and education. The renaissance emphasized the return to the natural and human values and attitude, the humanism tried to put the man in the focus of the paradigmas while the enlightenment movement tried to promote pure rationality.

These movements hint that the religion and confessional beliefs had a great influence over the centuries in the scientific and of course, in the educational field too. Knowing the history of the science in Europe, there's no doubt about the importance of the church as preserver and developer of the continent's scientific achievements. The scientific activity in the empire of Charlemagne (with the famous scholar Alcuin as key figure), the chodexes and scientific-philosophic works realized in the monasteries and the church's role in the founding of the first European universities are clear milestones of the cooperation between church and science in the history of the continent.

Thus the confessional content in the education was not only accepted but widely supported until the arrival of the modernity, when as result of the civic society development a pluralisationing process has started and as a result the secular education has appeared as a rival form of education. From that time on, the choice of the school also reflected an inner conviction of the individuals and their families.

This dualistic educational system was replaced by a monopolistic educational system in Central and Eastern Europe after the World War II. As the communist-socialist governments dominated in these countries by the support of the Soviet Union, confessional education partly (or in some places, like in Romania totally) disappeared. The churches had to restrict themselves to often illegal forms of education, as they were forced into clandestine frames.

The fall of the communism and the re-appearance of the democracies in this region of Europe set back the dualistic educational model, as both confessional and secular education was available. In Romania and in many other countries the churches' former real estates were not fully given back, but more or less they managed to reset the countrywide educational networks.

In the region, mainly in Hungary the numbers of students learning in confessional schools has grown significantly. In the public perception these institutions are seen as elite ,conservative schools which work and function according to traditional principals and methods, and which beyond the education treat as important tasks the shaping of the students' personality and community-building.¹

Until 1995 in Romania confessional high schools and departments requested functioning authorization from the specialized ministries and ever since there are 22 schools. Even if the educational act from 1995 created the legal framework of the confessional education, the churches are not acknowledged as institution holders, the schools can work as private-held institutions. In the changing of the act from 1999 it was already included, that-under state control regarding the teaching plan, the schoolbooks and examinations – the churches can run institutions, but the state doesn't assure the financing.²

In the school year 2004/2005 in Romania the most Hungarian students in confessional schools were in Harghita county, followed by Satu Mare, Cluj, Covasna and Bihor counties. In Bihor 2 of the 12 high schools were confessional, in Satu Mare 3 of the 16.³

In Romania a special case could be observed, as the almost 1.5 million ethnic hungarian inhabitants of the country were in double minority status, as they were not only Hungarians by ethnicity, identity and mother tongue but their confessional affiliations were also different from the dominant orthodox members of the society. The Hungarians dominantly belonged in 1989 to the Roman-Catholic church and smaller to smaller traditional protestant churches . This has not changed significantly ever since, the only dominant phenomena is the growing Hungarian population belonging to neo-protestant churches.

The possibility of choice of education was also a key element in the democratization of these societies. Choosing the confessional education for the children did not only reflect the parents' vote for a better quality education (if they thought so) but also many times the return to family traditions and the manifestation of free choice. The only question was, how can this reorganized confessional education be competitive with the secular institutions and whether these institutions will have elitist character (like in Hungary many such institutions remained elite-training schools, the most well known being possibly the Benedictian Gymnasium from Pannonhalma, traditional high school for the Habsburg family members) or they will remain behind the public schools as for the quality of education and the realized performances of the students.

The foundation of the Sulyok Istvan Reformed College (later It became Partium Christian University) in Oradea coincided with the democratic changes in Romania. At the

¹ Imre Anna. A felekezeti középiskolák jellemzői a statisztikai adatok tükrében. In *Educatio*, 2005/3 pg.475

² Pusztai Gabriella. *Társadalmi toke es az iskola. Uj Mandatum*, Budapest, 2009. P 94-95

³ Murvai, Adalekok az erdelyi kozepfoku magyar felekezeti oktatás történetéhez 1990-2003 in *Kulcsok es zarak*. Deva, Korvin Kiado ,2005

beginning of the 1990s Georgina Szilagyi, Flora Gabor and other teachers and researchers established a Research Center for Sociology of Religions, which carried out a complex evaluation of the Hungarian confessional educational networks in Romania⁴. They identified some key elements and problems which had seemed that would be major challenges but their conclusion was that there are good chances for the confessional institutions to gain the prestige and position of elite-training centers within the Hungarian public education in Romania.

The main missing elements and negative circumstances of the confessional networks have been identified as being the followings:

- The lack of continuity in the field of the transmission of confessional values, which can be observed not only in the attitudes of the population (mainly among the members of the middle-generations who didn't take part in any form of religious education(but also in the lack of persons belonging to the younger generations able to transmit religious values towards the youngest generations.

- Incomplete institutional frame, missing organizing experiences and infrastructural conditions.

- Little trust from the population and low level of acceptance towards the re-organized or newly appeared confessional schools.

In a research, realized by the above mentioned authors the researches were interested about the motivation and socio-economical background of the Hungarian families and parents who decided to choose the confessional education for their children. The main motivation has been the wish for a safer and better controlled education and for a community which shares homogeneous religious values.

The confessional beliefs of the family were a very influential factor, as the families who chose the confessional education were largely the same kind of families from socio-economical perspective which had proven to be the family-type with the strongest religious beliefs. We mean, that according to a former research realized by the same authors⁵, which focused on the religiosity of the population found that the most attracted to religious beliefs are the families with rural origins and with lower level of studies and less favorable economical situation. Most of the children who were participating in confessional education came from such families. There were few students with intellectual family origins, the only major exception group have been the sons and daughters of priests or clerical intellectuals.

The declared objective of the confessional schools was to offer a mobility channel for the children of those families who were more or less in a marginalized position in the previous communist era. They believed, that the following factors could play a key role in the efficiency of these schools in comparison with the secular institutions:

- Small groups for activities
- More direct and informal relations between students and teachers and families
- Various extracullicular activities

⁴Szilagyi-Flora Egyház az oktatás szolgálatában in Keresztyen szó 10 , evf 8. EPA 1999

⁵ Szilagyi Georgina. Atitudini religioase si multiculturalitate in Transilvania. Napoca Star, Cluj-Napoca, 2003

In the previous communist society the children of such families had very few chance to enter higher education, as the number of student-places have been highly restricted. After 1990, the expansion of the higher education became a reality in Romania too, so in a very short time the number of places in the higher education has been multiplied. These students and their families started to see the higher education as a possible and accessible target, and even the receiving of a Ph.D title seemed to be possible in the future. This on one hand offered a mobility for the whole family, as there was a clear chance for the children to become the first person who ever received a degree in the family and also caused a disrespect for the traditional professions and professional schools, like cooks, waiters, blue collar workers etc.

From the perspective of the Hungarian community in Romania, it was a chance to create a new generation of intellectuals and people with university level degrees and it also assured the demographical supply for the freshly founded Hungarian universities.

It also offered a chance, to multiply the number of the public education institutions, as next to the existing secular institutions new , confessional ones have been founded. As the secular institutions have been preferred by the traditional local Hungarian elite, the confessional institutions were mostly chosen by families with less favorable socio-economical indicators.

The authors also published the result of a survey, which tells much about the controversial attitudes of the Hungarians in that time. 83.12 % supported the idea of creating confessional schools, stating that in the democratic society the pluralistic values should be promoted, but only 21.87% of them said that they would prefer confessional education for their children.

However, the authors concluded that these institutions have the potential to become elite-training schools in 10-15 years and are able to offer a proper training for the future, often first generation intellectual elites.

Then and now: the achievements of the confessional educations in Bihor and Satu Mare counties based on high school graduation results

The former researches realized in similar topics have all used as main indicator the ratio of the students who studied and confessional schools and entered universities. However, as the expansion of the higher education is already a fact and there are numerous institutions (so entering a university does not reflect any outstanding performance anymore) we chose an other indicator, which we believe can be more adequate if we want to compare the results of the students of confessional and secular schools.

This indicator would be the students` results at the high school graduation. In this aspect, our research question also differs from the traditional approach. The most quoted numbers were the ratios of the students who passed this exam and of those who failed.

Our question is whether these institutions can really become elite training institutions as the authors of the formerly quoted research concluded? This could not be answered through ratios of passing or failing. The method through which we can formulate a proper answer is the analysis of the precise results and the comparison of the top results achieved by the students of both secular and confessional institutions. In this case we applied the document analysis as research method, using the documentation of the high school graduation exams⁶.

⁶ From www.edu.ro

This comparison can offer the chance to see the difference between the best students in the both kind of institutions and whether they have (based on this indicator which however reflects long years school performance mostly) equal chances for occupying future elite positions?

Best igh-school graduation results in Oradea- Bihor County in 2013

(source: www.edu.ro)

Name of the school	Highest result	Number of students who tried to pass the exam	Number of students who passed the exam	Number of students over the mark „9”	Ratio of passing the exam	Ratio of students over the mark „9” among all the students who tried to pass the exam
Ady Endre High School-S	9.68	180	140	14	77.7%	8%
Szent Laszlo Romano-Catholic High School-C	8.66	55	26	0	47%	0%
Lorantffy Zsuzsanna reformed high school-C	9.03	52	19	1	37%	2%

S-secular

C-confessional

Best igh-school graduation results in Satu Mare-Satu Mare County in 2013

(source: www.edu.ro)

Name of the school	Highest result	Number of students who tried to pass the exam	Number of students who passed the exam	Number of students over the mark „9”	Ratio of passing the exam	Ratio of students over the mark „9” among all the students who tried to pass the exam
Reformed high school-C	9.45	87	60	4	69%	5%
Ham Janos Romano-Catholic High School-C	9.62	40	39	7	97%	18%

Kolcsey Ferenc high school-S	10	158	134	23	85%	15%
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Best igh-school graduation results in Oradea- Bihor County in 2012

(source: www.edu.ro)

Name of the school	Highest result	Number of students who tried to pass the exam	Number of students who passed the exam	Number of students over the mark „9”	Ratio of passing the exam	Ratio of students over the mark „9” among all the students who tried to pass the exam
Ady Endre High School-S	9.21	194	120	5	61%	3%
Szent Laszlo Romano-Catholic High School-C	7.92	82		0	24%	0%
Lorantffy Zsuzsanna reformed high school-C	8.18	60	26	0	43%	0%

S-secular

C-confessional

Best igh-school graduation results in Satu Mare-Satu Mare County in 2012

(source: www.edu.ro)

Name of the school	Highest result	Number of students who tried to pass the exam	Number of students who passed the exam	Number of students over the mark „9”	Ratio of passing the exam	Ratio of students over the mark „9” among all the students who tried to pass the exam
Reformed high school-C	8.76	86	48	0	56%	0%
Ham Janos Romano-Catholic High School-C	9.46	40	37	7	93%	18
Kolcsey Ferenc high school-S	9.91	149	124	16	83%	11%

S-secular

C-confessional

The data show that both in Oradea, Bihor county the confessional schools are significantly less performing in the terms of the best results than the secular high school. Our first reaction was that in our opinion this difference is partly due to the fact that as we mentioned above, only about 20% of the families affirmed in the early 1990 s that they would actually choose secular education for their children. We also mentioned that the socio-economic background of the families who chose confessional education was significantly worse compared to the average Hungarian families in Romania. This also can be interpreted as the traditional intellectual and elite families didn't have trust in the quality of the confessional education, so those who have brought a higher level of intellectual capital chose secular education. As we can see, this original handicap could not be equalized in the past 20 years.

As a control-county we analyzed Satu Mare from Satu Mare county. The result was surprisingly different, as in the ratio of passing the exam among all the participating students and the ratio of students with at least „9” mark, the Romano-catholic students performed better in both 2012 and 2013.

The contradiction was solved as we made interviews key persons of education-organizing and students. It turned out, that while in Oradea, as we mentioned the population, and especially the former Hungarian elite did not trust the confessional schools, in Satu Mare the Ham Janos romano catholic high school was known for having good quality teaching staff. This trust towards the catholic school still exists, and it is result of the first two years after the founding of the school. As the teaching stuff was incomplete, the teachers considered to be the best from other schools work as part-time job in the catholic school and so it gained popularity among the middle-and high-class Hungarian families in Satu Mare.

With the additional values, as we mentioned before, like activities in small groups, more close relations between teachers and students, with homogeneous religious and moral values and with a wide range of extracurricular activities in both years achieved better results not only in the ratio of passing the high school graduation exam but also in the ratio of excellent students with outstandingly high marks.

Conclusion

In our research we tried to answer a question set about 20 years ago, whether the confessional schools, which have been reorganized after the collapse of the communist system will have the chance to become elite-training institutions through some specific forms of added values which characterize such institutions?

We analyzed primarily Oradea, in Bihor county, where the first research was realized by the researchers of the Sulyok Istvan (later Partium Christian) Univeristy, led by Georgina Szilagyi and Gavril Flora. In this city, we observed that the secular education provides better results both in the field of passing-ratio at high school graduation and in terms of excellent results.

As control-location we also analyzed Satu Mare, from Satu Mare county, where the contrary happened. After having realized some qualitative research, basically interviews with key persons in education and former students we set the hypothesis that this is a result of local special circumstances which have increased the trust in the confessional education, as it

did not happen in Oradea. The effect is still lasting, as in the last 2 years the confessional school Ham Janos performed better than the secular high school.

The main question still is whether confessional schools can fill the role of elite-training schools? The answer is yes, with a condition : they must be trusted from the local elite and upper-mid class families and if it's so they are likely to achieve better results through the given values that they can offer and which can make them more efficiently.

As for the efficiency of the confessional institutions, there are two main professional opinions in the international specialized literature. One approach is the analysis less invisible, less measurable element which is the added value of the atmosphere and the homogeneous value-system⁷. The most notable author on this topic is Coleman.

The other approach focuses on the analysis of the publicly available and accessible statistical data, like the number of students and teachers, the ratio of these, financing issues and other quantifiable dimensions⁸. This view is the dominant approach, while the most influential author who applies this approach is Caroline Hodges Persell.

We believe that both approaches can be justified and the proper combination of the two analytical framework can lead us to obtain a clear image and a deeper understanding of the efficiency of the confessional education.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

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Abstract: Nowadays foreign language practitioners can no longer approach teaching practice without adopting an intercultural perspective. Recent studies acknowledge the inseparable link between language and culture and admit that culture plays an important role in the process of successful and effective communication.

The current paper is built around the idea that the communicative approach to English language teaching/learning can turn into a first cultural experience for learners, particularly in specialized environments like engineering. The English language class with communicative methodology and practice can contribute to creating the premises for 'intercultural' education where intercultural communication skills can be acquired.

Keywords: language classroom, communicative approach, education, intercultural perspective.

Why an intercultural approach in teaching?

The 21st century world has turned into an intercultural communication network in which professional or personal interaction with other people calls for the understanding of implied meaning which “*is by no means guaranteed because conversants share the same dictionary*” (Barnlund, 1994 in Samovar & Porter, 1994:27). Attribution of meaning at either end of the communication channel depends not only on the language used but also on the individuals' knowledge of the world or frame of reference which is culturally determined. Thus, effective communication is as much conceptual as linguistic, because encoding or decoding a message depends on the cultural context and the schemata of the parties involved in the act of communication. Such an insight challenges the traditional belief that linguistic competence alone can enable learners to communicate successfully outside the classroom. Therefore, teaching English as a foreign language (FL) must make room for the integration of an explicit cultural dimension that can lead to enhanced competence when communication takes place across cultural boundaries. The language-culture relationship is essential to what goes on in the FL class and “the field of English-language teaching not only accepts that language and culture are inseparably related, but also recognizes that culture plays an important role throughout the process of language teaching and learning” (Baxter 1983:251). Examining information about and making contrastive comparisons between the students' (home) and foreign language (target) culture is likely to provide the learners with a greater degree of understanding of other people as well as with a self-awareness of themselves as individuals belonging to a cultural group. In such an approach, “culture” teaching becomes a joint teacher-student interpersonal process, in the sense that teachers themselves go through the experience of discovering ‘culture’ together with their learners. Since the foreign language is the medium of talking about culture, the lessons will reflect the inseparable link between language and culture in building the “thresholds” for cultural awareness that learners cross towards understanding, being tolerant and accepting ‘otherness’ when interacting and communicating with other people.

The Specific Context and its Cultural Dimensions

In spite of all winds of change and European perspectives, the academic engineering environment still remains traditional in form and essence, that is teacher-centred: subject teachers are the only competent authority in class. This usually makes communication one-way since lectures are delivered by professors, students do not play an active role, they do not frequently ask questions, they are told ‘what’ and ‘how’ to do. Thus, in terms of Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, the academic context in which English as a foreign language is taught can be said to display *Large Power Distance*, *Collectivism*, *Formal Harmony* and *High Uncertainty Avoidance*, which promote a certain learning culture.

Given the fact that, since the 1990’s, English has been taught communicatively, these cultural norms change in the foreign language class. This change is possible because of the specific context of the language class within which there are two key players: the communicative methodology and the parties involved, teacher and learners.

On the one hand, the methodology used makes the language class learner-centred. The learners have an active role being responsible for their own learning, they are involved in an interactive process of communication. Learners are invited to express personal opinions and are taught to respect their peers’ opinions and actions. They learn to study the foreign language in a different way, namely by cooperating with each other in pairs and groups in a spirit of positive competition. Their relationship with the teacher becomes a two-way partnership in communication.

On the other hand, the learners themselves contribute to this change. The students, who attend English classes, most of them for their first year of study according to the university’s curriculum, are young adults who are mature and knowledgeable enough to cope with culture-bound concepts, i.e. stereotypes, or make comparisons and contrasts between their own and other people’s culture. Then, their level of proficiency in English is generally intermediate which permits a more relaxed approach to language teaching/learning and allows for a broadening of focus by integrating other elements into language teaching, e.g. professional communication skills and cultural aspects. Then, it is the students’ complex motivation to learn English which becomes an actual support for a change of focus. They enjoy movies and songs, they watch documentaries on the Discovery Channel or simply browse the Internet. Our students travel a lot, as simple tourists or as part of programmes such as ‘Erasmus’ or ‘Work and Travel’. The English language provides access to information, professional development, job opportunities, immigration and leisure activities. This is the reason why Romanian learners in general are open to adapt so easily to the cultural norms of interaction promoted in the learning of English.

However, the integration of a cultural element in the language class in the given learning context faces some problems and challenges. First, the learners are monolingual and monocultural. This does not cater for interaction and communication across cultures. Secondly, owing to their previous educational background, the students perceive ‘culture’ in terms of elitist ‘high culture’, i.e. the art, literature, music, institutions and so on of a group or nation. The main challenge lies in the different meaning that is given to ‘culture’ within an intercultural approach, i.e. ‘low culture’ which means access to the world view and communication style of other people who come from different cultures. Another important issue is the decision on whether to focus on the target language culture or to be culture-

general. Most engineering students are most likely going to use English as a means of international communication due to the heterogeneous nationality of the people who do business in and with Romania. Most probably, the learners will function in a broad multilingual and multicultural context, not necessarily British or American. This means that the expected goal of culture teaching is not ‘knowing about’ a certain culture but coping with language and culture in any academic or professional encounter, which basically means that learners should develop appropriate communication skills, strategies and awareness of ‘otherness’.

The new ‘culture’ proposed by the English language class arises from the intimate relationship between communication, language and culture. As some writers say “... every cultural pattern and every single act of social behavior involves communication in either an explicit or implicit sense...” (Sapir 1931 quoted in Kim, 1988:47). Thus, the cultural dimensions of the English language teaching/learning context derive from the training for communication the learners are urged to become part of.

The Relationship between Language and Culture in the Communicative Class

Like any other approach, the approach to ‘culture’ teaching should be tuned to the specific needs of the educational context in which it is applied. A basic need remains the one that learners need to expand their knowledge of the English language. Therefore, the integration of a cultural element into language teaching should start from and with language work. The learners learn the language to communicate. The language class is not an abstract vacuum but a concrete reality where “language must be studied in relation to its role in human communication” (Brown, 1986:135). The learners’ traditional *linguistic competence*, i.e. knowledge of the language, the system of rules enabling the learners to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences, is expected to turn into *communicative competence*, the ability to produce and understand sentences which are appropriate to the context in which they occur (Crystal, 1985). Thus, communicative competence subsumes the social determinants of linguistic behaviour including such contextual matters as the relationship between speaker/writer and listener/reader and the influencing factors, which stem from the time and place of communication. As mentioned earlier, we believe that the essential impact of the communicative methodology on the Romanian learners is their ‘training’ for communication which is likely to make some changes in their communication culture. Language expresses culture; this means that, at every stage of dealing with the language, there must be a cultural load attached to the language, which awaits to be revealed. Thus, we can postulate the proposition that communicative competence becomes linked to *cultural competence*, i.e. the knowledge of how to behave verbally and nonverbally in a particular cultural setting. For instance, one of the main features of the communicative approach is that learners are taught to value the role of *context in communication*, i.e. the contextual features surrounding the use of the text by both the encoder and decoder, knowledge of the topic, situation and participants supported by background knowledge, sociocultural knowledge and schematic knowledge.

There has been much research and debate on finding the best ways to teach ‘culture’ in the language class. For example, Baxter (1983) finds fault with both “*the linguistic competence*” for its omission of the ability to use language in specific contexts and “*the*

communicative competence” for its ignorance of the necessary knowledge and behavioural skills required for communications in intercultural context. Based on the measurement of appropriate language in terms of its suitability in intercultural contexts, and not according to NS (native speaker) standards, the researcher suggested a model for teaching English – EIL (teaching English as an International Language). Baxter’s EIL tries to make up for the limitations of a communicative competence approach since English is seen as a “lingua franca”. In this line of thought, Baxter argues that, although the use of English is culture-bound, the English language is free of any specific culture or political system. In this way, Baxter strongly supports the idea that intercultural communication skills can be taught in the English language classroom.

Another researcher, Murphy (1988) constructs four models of FLT methodology which assign a particular role to the cultural dimension. Her approaches are more complex than Baxter’s as she considers all the elements that contribute to teaching “culture”, such as cultural input, role of learners, type of competence as well as the language-culture relationship. Relevant to our discussion is her second model, the Communicative Model. Although the model maintains the stress on linguistic objectives, there is a change of emphasis in the sense that the concept of culture acquires the meaning of verbal behaviour and becomes “culture” with a small “c”. Murphy calls communicative competence “le savoir-faire”, i.e. the knowledge of what to do as cultural behaviour is implemented in a set of skills and strategies. We believe that such a model opens a way to reconsidering the place and role of the cultural dimension in FL teaching. As far as the Romanian context is concerned, the communicative method has become a culture-carrying framework built upon the cultural values and dimensions transmitted and practiced in the English language class. The “culture” of the FL class strikes a different note within the culture of the institution because it changes some essential dimensions such as Power Distance, Individualism – Collectivism or Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede 1986, Goodman 1994). The students’ original educational culture, which is hierarchical, collectivist, role-governed and assertive becomes egalitarian, individualist, less rule-governed and more quality-of-life for everybody in the language class due to the communicative approach.

The English Language class fosters its own ‘culture’ which can be similar to Holiday’s “small culture” (1999:237) defined as the culture displayed and formed in a small social grouping or activities wherever there is cohesive behaviour. This “small culture” springs from the techniques, tasks, working formats, roles of teachers and learners promoted by the communicative approach to language teaching/learning. Such a belief finds further support in the statement that “*Culture is learned, not inherited. It derives from one’s social environment, not from one’s genes...*” (Hofstede, 1994:5).

The social environment is the classroom in which the learners learn the language by thinking, behaving and reacting in a different way from their specialist subject classes. To continue along this line of reasoning, we can say that a process of ‘acculturation’, i.e. the process of second culture learning, takes place in the FL class, while the learners are subject to the cultural influences associated with the language they are learning. We would like to take just a few examples which can uphold this assumption.

Communicative English Language teaching endorses the culture of *learner-centredness* in which the learners are treated as independent individuals who take initiative in

communication, have their own opinions and assume responsibility for their learning. The pattern of the learners' dependence on the teacher reflecting large power distance is superseded by a relationship of interdependence between teachers and learners. The teacher is no longer 'a guru' who transfers personal wisdom; teachers become facilitators, monitors, experts who share their knowledge with the students. If we consider the techniques of *predicting or guessing unknown words from the context*, we can assume that the learners' original low tolerance of ambiguity is affected. *Brainstorming* encourages the free association of concepts, ideas, facts or feelings related to a context without evaluating the merits of a thought. Thus, among other cultural values such as initiative, respect for and tolerance of difference, non-judgemental behaviour is developed. All these strategies increase trust in one's own ability and promote a higher self-esteem which are new cultural values to our engineering students. Overall, the communicative methodology shifts the focus from performance to competence in the sense that the students learn how to learn. The learners are guided to find their own paths by capitalizing on their existing knowledge and experiences. We tend to believe that this is a piece of learning that transcends the limits of the language classroom and makes the learners part of a new learning culture. Another argument comes from the use of cooperative working formats. According to Cushner & Brislin (1996) group dynamics can be regarded as intercultural or 'multicultural', i.e. culturally diverse interaction. The explanation to such a view is justified by the opportunity the learners get to experience a variety of view points and verbal behaviours which are influenced by each group member's *idioculture*, the individual unique level of culture, and communicative competence. Although the learners belong to the same culture and speak the same language, they come from various walks of life, they have their own social and educational backgrounds, their experiences, world views and lifestyles are different. It is obvious that learners themselves represent an example of a certain degree of individual and societal multiculturalism:

"We consider most people to be potentially multicultural, as we are all socialized by many different groups that influence our behaviours and thought patterns, gender, ethnicity, socio-economic state and religion (Cushner & Brislin 1996:5)

To make a long story short, we can say that group work in the FL class plays the role of 'a dress rehearsal' of a real life encounter between cultures. From a 'culture' learning perspective, the working format trains the learners how to negotiate, how to work in a team and how share responsibility. The emerging cultural values, such as team spirit, flexibility, tolerance, cooperation and responsibility become incorporated into the 'small' culture of the language class, which definitely reshapes the general culture dimensions of the educational context. Thus, while the learners are learning the foreign language they develop a new mode of thinking, feeling and acting, they modify their existing 'cultural baggage' (Byram 1989). In other words, the learners modify their concepts and schemata so that new cultural learning can take place.

Byram (1989) provides an intercultural approach model which makes a clear distinction between 'cultural information', i.e. factual data about a culture and 'cultural knowledge', i.e. data plus understanding the explanation of why it is the way it is. According to the researcher, plain 'cultural information' makes learners culture-outsiders, with a

consumer-tourist competence which does not enable them to understand or empathize with the target culture. The major limitation of this approach is that the cultural learning is passive, static and does not develop any skills for real communications.

On the other hand, learners can be taken over the tourist-competence threshold and offered the perspective of ‘insiders’ who can build a participant-type intercultural competence. The learners develop their ‘cultural information’, the ‘what’ of culture into the ‘why’, which should provide them with deeper understanding that is likely to lead to ‘cultural knowledge’. This can be achieved through a process of cultural awareness raising and training. The concept of “awareness” i.e. thinking about, reflecting on, is a key element in Byram’s model based on four quarters: language learning, language awareness, cultural awareness and cultural experience. The researcher divides cultural awareness into two processes: cross-cultural awareness and inter-cultural awareness. He argues that a cross-cultural approach is limited because it reinforces stereotyping through focus on boundary-marking phenomena, i.e. separate identity of a culture. He further pleads for an intercultural awareness approach based on a generalized view of the full range of cultural complexity exhibited by any culture. This position, which has some common points with Baxter’s and Murphy’s models, would promote a learner-focused approach in which the learners can develop an openness to different cultural value systems.

The models referred to above prove that much thought has gone into finding a suitable approach to teaching ‘culture’. We strongly believe that there are no recipes. A good approach is the one which is adjusted and tuned to the specific needs of the particular educational environment where it is used.

Final Remarks

Reiterating the idea expressed throughout this paper regarding the fact that the communicative approach to foreign language teaching/learning makes a first cultural experience for our learners, we would like to highlight some points of the discussion. First, there is an obvious need to attach an open cultural dimension to language teaching if we wish our learners to be efficient communicators in the ‘global village’ we all live in nowadays. Secondly, in specific non-native context where language learning is still a priority, language and culture should be approached as equal contributors to the learners’ competence to communicate in the foreign language. The main rationale is that learners are expected to acquire the competence of ‘le savoir-communiquer’, that is the ability to cope with real life communication through certain skills and strategies as well as through understanding and accepting “otherness” (the existence of other cultures than one’s own). Thus, taking advantage of the ‘small culture’ of the English Language class, our teaching of ‘culture’ shall strike a balance between the development of both English language skills and other skills such as critical thinking, interpreting, reasoning skills which foster (or at least, are expected to) flexibility, tolerance, understanding and awareness of otherness.

To conclude, we can say that the English Language class in our university has developed its own *modus vivendi and operandi* - its own ‘culture’, free of any ethnic, institutional or national values. The ‘small culture’ is a mélange of local educational cultures, learners’ and teacher’s cultures which combine with the cultural values associated with the language taught and the methodology used. All these will prompt cohesive group activities

which build up into a particular socio-cultural framework that will promote language and ‘culture’ learning through developing skills and abilities to attribute meaning to both linguistic and cultural experiences.

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THE CULTURE OF LEARNING INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATION: NEW IMPERATIVES FOR ENGINEERING EDUCATION

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Abstract: The paper is concerned with the new requirements for the technical students due to the changes occurring in our globalizing world. We examine the possibilities, which are actually open to the curriculum of communication in the area of foreign language study as related to culture. Attempts to investigate culture underlying universal cultural processes to promote a universal core in cultural competence (shared cultural skills), and cultural practices (cultural resources/behaviour) are main focus in the present research. The potential for crossing intercultural lines and achieving intercultural communication should be developed in our engineering students to train them for the international labour market and certify their abilities of professional communication.

Keywords: globalization, international communication, politeness, cross-cultural skills, intercultural competences

Introduction

Research on intercultural communication focuses on features of the shared communication between speakers from different language or cultural backgrounds, and often relates to cultural groups at the level of nations and national languages with their own codified norms (Bowe & Martin, 2007, 3). The language components – vocabulary, grammar, style, inference, politeness – and interpretation of meaning are shaped by sociocultural practices and highlighted in the study of intercultural communication.

The term “culture” has changed in meaning over time (Goddard, 2005, 53). In its earliest English uses, “culture” was a noun of process, referring to the tending of crops or animals. In the sixteenth century “culture” began to be used about “cultivating” the human body through training, and later about “cultivating” the non-physical aspects of a person. In the nineteenth century the meaning was broadened to include the general state of human intellectual, spiritual and aesthetic development, comparable to “civilisation”. In contemporary times, culture can be understood as a set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioural conventions, basic assumptions, and values shared by a group of people, and which influence each member’s behaviour and each member’s interpretations of the meanings of other people’s behaviour.

Nowadays, to be effective in international professional communication engineering students should become familiar with intercultural communication that can be affected by different aspects of the context, including cultural expectations, social relations and the purpose of the communication. Thus, it has become “cultural” to prepare students from the Technical University of Cluj-Napoca to understand key concepts related to intercultural communication issues, which is significant, from a pragmatic view, to internationally successful professional achievements.

Interconnectedness of global environment

The most significant forces toward increasing globalization at the beginning of the 21st century are the economic and scientific interconnections among countries, and the dramatic advances in information technology. Parker (2005, 5) describes globalization as “a process whereby worldwide interconnections in virtually every sphere of activity are growing. Some of these interconnections lead to integration/unity worldwide; others do not”. This definition underlines the shifts that have taken place in technological, political, and economic spheres.

Thus, economic globalization links countries and organizations in a network of international connections that shape the environment in which engineering graduates and global managers must function, an environment undergoing changes that influence traditional boundaries (including traditional academic education).

The modern manager’s job combines a specialist (professional) and a managerial element, and is characterized by a high degree of interpersonal interaction. Hales (1986) summarized 10 characteristics of managerial work. Notable is the extent to which what managers do involves interactions with other people. According to Hales much managerial activity consists of asking or persuading others to do things, involving the manager in face-to-face verbal communication of limited duration; patterns of communication vary in terms of what the communication is about and with whom the communication is made; managers spend a great deal of time accounting for and explaining what they do, in informal relationships, and in political activity; managerial activities are rife with contradictions, cross-pressures, and conflicts. Much managerial work involves coping with and resolving social and technical conflict, setting the boundaries of and negotiating the work itself.

The roles (interpersonal, informational, decisional) and work behaviours of managers are the result of both the national and organizational contexts, which impose demands and constraints on the choices they make, and are influenced by national culture, indirectly as well as directly. Stewart et al. (1994) found differences in German and British firms that gave rise to specific differences in roles for managers. For example, German organizations placed a greater emphasis on technical as opposed to interpersonal controls than did British firms. German managers involved less concern about gaining cooperation, less awareness of organizational constraints, less direct supervision, more involvement in the technical aspects of tasks, fewer meetings and networking, but more desk work than the jobs of British managers. In these cases, national cultural differences influenced managerial jobs indirectly.

Important aspects of global managers’ roles and their associated behaviours differ around the world. These differences are the result of both a direct effect of culture on behaviour and a more indirect effect of culture on organizational context.

Information technology can become an equalizer in terms of access to knowledge and may also have an effect on work opportunities. Some predictions suggest that in the first quarter of the 21st century a computer will be built that exceeds the capacity of the human brain. Today there are hundreds of millions of Internet users and billions of Web pages. The capability of nearly universal language translation, which is already beginning to appear on the Internet, has the potential for a greater exchange of ideas than exists today. It is possible that this exchange will create an increased sense of global identity among the people of the world, yet difficult to predict the long-term impact of such changes for the in-demand jobs 20 years from now.

Directness and indirectness across cultures

People from some cultures tend to favour directness, while people from other cultures favour less directness. Directness may also vary in relation to social context. For example, in the case where a person wants a favour from another person, the preferred strategy may be to hint and talk about the topic. In another cultural context, it may be more appropriate to ask directly.

Different languages have different ways of marking politeness. Cross-cultural variation of requests, complaints, apologies, acceptances of apologies and compliments illustrates what is often called socially appropriate behaviour or politeness. Politeness may be then defined as doing what is appropriate in a given cultural context.

Many people tend to think of politeness as the use of extremely formal language, but most linguists perceive politeness as a continuum of appropriate communication (Fraser, 1990, 220). A key point is that one should try to avoid upsetting people. This notion of avoiding conflict or confrontation is an integral element of appropriate language usage, finding its way into the language of almost all social groups, generally recognized as politeness.

One of the major approaches to politeness is Brown and Levinson's (1987) model, which consists of three basic notions: face, face-threatening acts and politeness strategies. Face refers to the desire that all people have to maintain and defend their own self-image. Face is something that can be lost, maintained or enhanced, and any threat to face must be continually controlled during an interaction. Consequently, language users develop politeness strategies to reduce the face loss that may result from an interaction that is face-threatening. The model assumes that in choosing how to phrase speech acts that may threaten the hearer's positive or negative face, a speaker takes into account the factors of relative power between the speaker and hearer, relative social distance between the speaker and hearer, and the relative degree of the imposition involved. For instance, in regards to the relative power variable, comparing the two requests: a) *Excuse me sir, would it be all right if I smoke?*, and b) *Mind if I smoke?*, Brown and Levinson (1987, 80) suggest that a) might be said by an employee to his boss, while b) might be said by the boss to the employee in the same situation.

The universality of the concept of face claimed by Brown and Levinson seems to be a key principle underlying politeness in all cultures, but not for all individuals of a community; in some cultures individuals can acquire conventionally polite ways of speaking and interacting as a result of social norms of communication. Meier (1995, 353) suggests that the study of politeness requires that we "persist in placing language within its broader social context".

Further insight on aspects of politeness provides a further perspective from which to study cross-cultural communication. Wierzbicka (2003) applies the term "cultural scripts" to refer to her technique for articulating cultural norms, values and practices using Natural Semantic Metalanguage, contrasting the Western model (cultural script) with the traditional Japanese model.

Wierzbicka suggests that "uninhibited self-assertion" is allowed and encouraged in Anglo-American culture, where one is expected to say clearly and unequivocally what one wants, what one would like, or what one thinks. This is why English has a number of

interrogative-directive devices (“whimperatives”) such as: *Would you do X?*, *Can you do X?*, *Why don't you do X?*. Even though the use of interrogative structures is more limited in Japanese than it is in English, in Japanese it is easier to say “*I want you to do X*” than “*I want to do X*” as it is important to “acknowledge independence on other people, and deference to other people”, using acknowledging devices usually combined with expressions of respect (Wierzbicka, 2003, 78). By contrast, in many other languages, for example Polish, Russian, Hebrew, Italian and Hungarian, the infinitive is used much more freely, and the use of interrogative structures in directives is much more limited.

Within recent approaches of cognitive linguistics, an individual's knowledge is represented in his/her cognitive schema and, by extension, cultural knowledge is represented using “cultural schema”. Sharifian (2004) argues that such “cultural schemas” are conceptual structures that develop at the cultural level of cognition, rather than the psychological level. These schemas are knowledge templates that are represented across the minds in a cultural group. Cultural schemas are abstracted from social interactions between the members of a cultural group, who “negotiate” and “renegotiate” these schemas across generations. Unfamiliarity with such schemas may lead to discomfort or misunderstanding during the process of intercultural communication.

Levels of intercultural competence

In our effort to prepare students to meet the needs for international communication we – as language teachers/educators - are convinced that engineering students should be instructed today to answer the future professional demands for communication purposes, ranging from acquiring an elementary level of language use (a minimal knowledge of a language for the purpose of simple communication with people of other languages/cultures) to a level of competence for professional interpreting and/or translating.

It has become a constant practice in our work within Technical University of Cluj-Napoca to make students (undergraduate and graduate) aware of the need for sensitivity to cross-cultural differences (in the organization, inclusively) and presentation of spoken and written material designed for international communication. In this sense, we grouped students according to 4 levels of intercultural competence.

a) Elementary language use level for the purpose of simple communication

Relevant tasks would include:

- formulating and answering general enquiries
- assisting others (clients/customers) to read/complete a simple form (e.g. in English)
- assisting persons of non-English-speaking background by giving instructions or directions (in the English/specific language)

b) Paraprofessional language use level for the purpose of general conversations

Relevant tasks would include:

- performing/interpreting in general conversations
- performing/interpreting in situations where specialised terminology or more sophisticated information is not required
- performing/interpreting in situations where a depth of linguistic ability is not required

c) Sub-professional language use level, which represents a level of competence for the purpose of producing a translated version of scientific information

Relevant tasks would include:

- translation of texts, which do not contain highly specialised information/terminology
- simple translation work, where some level of inaccuracy is acceptable

d) Professional language use level, which represents the minimum level of competence for professional interpreting or translating

Relevant tasks would include:

- interpreting/translating within their specialist subject areas, usually involving specialist consultations with other professionals; it may include routine correspondence, reports, standard text material in the general/specialist field
- interpretation/translation work, where a reasonable level of accuracy is required

At this level, students learn to convey the full meaning of the information from the source language and into the target language in the appropriate style and register. Thus, to achieve international communication abilities of high level we train students to equally improve their “bilingual” language skills, interpreting and translating skills as well as to widen background and cross-cultural knowledge.

Cross-cultural skills and abilities

There are factors that influence the way in which people interact with their environment and each other and thereby condition the way they think, i.e. their mental programming. Hofstede (1983) suggests that nationality has a symbolic value to citizens that influences how we perceive ourselves. Therefore, from an international business/education perspective, national culture is probably the most logical level of analysis from which to begin to understand the cultural environment. On the other hand, each individual has unique life experiences that contribute to diversity within the culture.

Interacting effectively with people from other cultures and behaving appropriately in a culturally novel context are indications of the cross-cultural skills and abilities. These skills include a wide range of information, interpersonal and behavioural skills. They largely relate to coping with the stress associated with working/learning in or the ability to adjust to a foreign culture (Black & al., 1991).

Learners in immersion environments, such as study abroad, often report feelings as if those around them may perceive them to be lacking personality or humor. Students, whose knowledge of cultural conventions and communication skills in the new language environment may be novice, can feel confused or embarrassed. The learner experiences “culture shock” when he finds that his problem-solving and coping mechanisms do not work in the new culture. The learner’s self becomes trapped behind the communication barrier that results. Moreover, the cultural frame of the new environment causes the self to be reinterpreted through another filter of meaning. Learners become disadvantaged in their ability to assimilate new information, develop their social networks, and present their self, when their own frame of reference becomes marginalized by the prominent frame of the new culture (Pellegrino, 2005, 14).

Exchange students from our university or other European universities claimed that their initial strategies were to be very modest and polite, to ask questions and to pretend to understand even if they were not satisfied with the response, insisting in checking their understanding by repeating with their interpretation of the message meaning. Activities,

which were routine in their native country, required great energy in the new culture. They found conversation partners responding to them in unexpected ways such as simplifying and slowing their speech excessively or speaking more loudly, as if to compensate for a loss of hearing. This situation may cause stress and anxiety.

The search for a universal skill set is leading to the development of new models that predict intercultural effectiveness. They contain both general and culture-specific elements, which focus on the ability to exhibit appropriate behaviour. Ting-Toomey's (1999) conceptualization of cross-cultural communication and models of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003) focus on how culture-specific experiences can be converted into general skills that can then be applied to new cross-cultural structures. These models shift the focus from specific skills to a culture-general meta-skill, where the central component is an analytic ability, called mindfulness or cultural metacognition.

The characteristics of effective intercultural interaction can be summarized (Thomas & Fitzsimmons, 2008) as good personal adjustment (indicated by feelings of contentment and well-being), development and maintenance of good interpersonal relationships with culturally different others, and the effective completion of task-related goals.

Final remarks

To be effective in cross-cultural contexts, it is important to understand both the sources and outcomes of different cultural and social identities, and to adapt to the changing environment. The current trends, which mirror the changes, are a result of the forces of globalization that include the uneven development in the world, the continued influence of information and communication technology, and the growing pressure on the natural environment. However, global accessibility is not necessarily similar to global communication.

Understanding the influence of culture on interpersonal interactions is now a fundamental requirement to effective international communication. The perspective of interpersonal interactions with people/specialists who are culturally different imposes a more increased attention for educators and language teachers to approach (foreign) language courses for professional communication with a re-evaluation of what "communication", "community" (e.g. discourse/speech community), "culture" and "identity" mean. A special emphasis on directness and indirectness across cultures in terms of verbal and non-verbal behaviours (politeness) different cultures favour, the international professional skills and abilities required for a highly competitive engineer enabled us to establish the levels of intercultural/international communication competence with main level-related tasks students in the Technical University of Cluj-Napoca can be ranked.

Our technical universities nowadays have to face more adequately the new global nature demands of the labour and educational markets and, consequently, train their engineering students in a more effective way for the international professional environment, which seems to become more complex, more dynamic, more uncertain, and more competitive than ever before.

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THE POSSIBILITIES OF EXPANSION OF TALENT CARE INITIATIVES IN THE FRAME OF HUNGARIAN MINORITY EDUCATION IN ROMANIA

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Abstract: In my paper I will try to analyze some relevant factors which may contribute to the expansion of talent care initiatives in the frame of Hungarian minority education in Romania and I will also dedicate special attention to all the factors which may create obstacles.

The talent care initiatives which are already existing in the current hungarian educational network in Romania largely tend to follow and to copy the so called Colleges for Advanced Studies from Hungary and other forms of the students' professional competitions. However, I believe that none of these examples can have long-term success without taking into consideration the local peculiarities of the Hungarian community in Romania.

In my paper I will focus on the strong and weak points of the Hungarian education in Romania, I analyze the legal background of the current Romanian educational system and I also focus on such phenomenas as assimilation, migration

Keywords: minorities, education, legal background, assimilation, migration

Introduction

The talent care initiatives have a long history in the frame of the higher education. Of course, the term in the context of higher education could not be interpreted for many centuries, as starting from the middle ages the few university centers of Europe were without doubt talent care institutions themselves¹. The low number of the students, the distances that had to be faced if someone wanted to study in these centers meant that those who had the opportunity to be members of these academic communities were given all the chances to become the future elite of their home societies.

However, after the expansion of the higher education the leaders of the institutions and even the students, and after all, all the members of the university community had to face the fact: there are probably not as many positions and career-possibilities in the society as many students are formed at the universities². And an other fact was, and still is, that not all the students have equal abilities, similar expectations and motivation. A possible way out from this dilemma could be the spreading of the talent care initiatives, which in various forms aims to offer more for the involved students than the average benefits of the university level education.

If we talk about the Hungarian minority education in Romania, it has some peculiarities which has determined that the talent care initiatives will be largely similar to the such initiatives which are already widespread in Hungary. First of all, the common education language made the whole system, the working methods and written experiences easily applicable and adaptable. In addition, in Hungary the so called „szakkollegium” (the best translation would be „college for advanced studies” was not only a recognized form of the

¹ Aldrich, Richard. An introduction to the history of education. Hodder-Stoughton, London, 1982 p.37

² Atkinson, G.B.J. The economics of education. Hodder-Stoughton, London, 1983 p.91

talent care within the frame of higher education, but through the role of these institutions in the democratic turn ³ in 1989-90 this form of talent care enjoyed massive support of the wider society⁴.

In our paper we will not only analyze the currently existing talent care initiatives which can be observed and identified in Romania within the frame of the Hungarian minority higher education, but we will also offer an analysis on the possible appearance and development of alternative talent care initiatives. Our research aspects will include legal, demographic, economic and pedagogical approaches.

Research methods

Our main research method will be the document-analysis. This will include the study of the legislative texts, acts, studies realized by other authors (secondary data analysis) in related topics and a selection of press-materials which have relevance in our context.

Supply and demand: the frame of my analysis

The supply and demand, and the various forms of analysis based on these come from the economics, but many authors have convincingly proved that this can be applied for various social phenomena as an analysis-framework. SCHUMPETER

We decided to apply this in order to be able to take a profound look into the depth of both the possibilities which currently exist and could potentially appear in the field of talent care initiatives and the potential demand for it, not only from the students' point of view but also from the perspectives of the companies or other potential future employers.

Throughout the history we can find various examples for initiatives and institutions which proved to be unviable in lack of demand. We can mention here not only the possibly naïve idea of exporting the democracy to developing countries, but also the useless development projects, financed by the EU which proved to be unsustainable as a result of lack of demand.⁵ So we believe that all the future protagonists, initiators and experts who try to analyze the possibilities of the talent care initiatives in Romania should take into the consideration the uncertainty of the demand on national level, not forgetting the fact that the most excellent students in the secondary education have many options to go to study abroad to high-level universities and in the last years Romania has been a target country for such institutions, especially hunting for young Romanian students in the fields of IT and engineering, realizing a new method of „brain-drain” in the region.

We will intend to identify the major elements of both the demand and supply parts, taking into consideration the institutional structure, the legal framework, the human resources

³ Many of the young intellectuals who sat to table with the ruling communist leaders were members of colleges for advanced studies, mainly of the Bibó István College (founded for students of law) and Rajk College (founded for economics and business students). The party with the longest period in government after 1989 (Fidesz) was even founded in the Bibó College in 19th march 1988.

⁴ Szakkollégiumi helyzetkép felmérése-Összeállította: ADITUS Tanácsadó és Szolgáltató Zrt-Budapest, 2011 p.14

http://femip.hu/c/document_library/get_file?uuid=53e02822-86f2-4237-a885-229a35a092e6&groupId=10136
accessed 09.04.,2015

⁵ A relevant example could be the case of the Ciudad Real Airport, closed due to financial unsustainability
<http://www.thinkspain.com/news-spain/21060/ciudad-real-airport-to-close-tomorrow>
accessed 09.05.2014

and financial possibilities and the recent experiences, while on the part of the demand we will dedicate special attention to the individual and collective motivation of the students and the wider society to support such initiatives, even if many of these are not yet realistic expectations and motivations but possible scenarios which can become reality as result of rapid social changes.

The main elements of the „supply” side

The supply in this context and in our interpretation to which we will be loyal is the totality of all the currently existing and possibly appearing factors which are in favour of the expansion of the talent care initiatives. These include the relevant elements of the national legislation, available funds, infrastructure, human resources, social support and tradition. As we underlined in the former chapter, we believe that it's basically important to evaluate correctly the supply, as it is a primary pre-condition of any change within the society. We assume, that in many cases the extension of the talent care initiatives could be interpreted as an evident desire, purely because there are no reasons to oppose and while talent care, especially in Hungarian language context has a largely positive connotation (the national pride related to the „Hungarian geniuses” is an often quoted base of the modern Hungarian identity and all the initiatives that support this special attention to the human resources of the nation are widely supported in public spheres⁶).

However, we believe it would be an irresponsible attitude to pretend that the expansion of the talent care initiatives in the Hungarian minority higher-education in Romania depend only on the aspect whether there's need (demand) from the students' and the wider society's side. Without a proper supply such a desire could be rather utopistic. This is why we analyze each factor in detail, which we consider to be relevant in this context.

Legal framework

The evaluation of the legal framework in Romania can be rather simple for the first sight. If someone would look over in the frame of a comparative legislative research, would probably conclude the chapter about Romania with quite short comments as there are hardly any legislative references which are meant to regulate the talent care initiatives in Romania⁷. We can even imagine, that such hypothetical researchers would have various observations on this, and some of them could have a negative evaluation as there are few detailed legislative instructions for such initiatives.

However, we believe that the situation is considerably more complex. To offer a better understanding, we would like to offer a brief insight into Hungary's case (as we mentioned, the talent care initiatives in the Hungarian minority higher education in Romania partly tend

⁶ http://hvg.hu/elet/20140421_200_milliobol_nepszerusitik_a_Rubikkocka
accessed 05.09.2014

⁷ ANDRÁS GYÓRBÍRÓ & TÍMEA CEGLÉDI- INSIGHT INTO THE HUNGARIAN AND ROMANIAN TALENT CARE SYSTEM IN HIGHER EDUCATION – A LEGAL APPROACH p.74 in Third Mission of Higher Education in a Cross-Border Region .Edited by Gabriella Pusztai – Adrian Hatos – Tímea Cegléd. Center for Higher Education Research and Development – Hungary University of Debrecen 2012 ISBN 978-963-473-599-1 ISSN 2063-8477

to take as model the forms practiced in Hungary, so this comparison may have relevancy in this context as well).

In Hungary, the Act for Higher Education dedicates a whole chapter for the talent care initiatives.⁸ There are specific references and instructions, especially for the legal forms and the criterias of these (in which such initiatives can be carried out). We can find detailed legislative indications for the various forms of talent care, a separate part dealing only with the so called „szakkollegiumok” (colleges for advanced studies). For the proper understanding and interpretation of this it is necessary to know, that the lobby power and social-political influence of these colleges couldn't have been stronger as a significant part of the political class and in the moment of the writing of this article⁹ the President of the country, the Prime Minister and the President of the Parliament (National Assembly) are all ex-members of such colleges. As these colleges, especially the Bibó and Rajk college have played a key role during the democratic turn of the country and have formed ever since a large number of legal and economical experts who served governments of various parties and coalitions, the term „szakkollegium” could be well known for the experts of the Ministry of Education. This is briefly, why we find such an arguably uniquely detailed legal framework in Hungary for the talent care initiatives, especially for the colleges for advanced studies.

In Romania the situation might be rather less specified and legally instructed, but it is more likely that the case of Hungary is an exception due to the above mentioned reasons. In this approach it wouldn't be fair to say that this field in Romania is not underlined enough on legislative level. On the contrary, we try to offer a balanced approach to the readers to create their own analyzing frame.

Given the fact that there are quite few specific legal references, those, who wish to implement any talent care initiatives are free to do it, as the Act of Higher Education supports the idea of any activity which contributes to the development of any student who has outstanding abilities, which offers useful extrascholar activities and which enriches the usual school-curricula with cultural and professional activities¹⁰. This is not only important as a symbolic supportive gesture from the legislation, but also offers a significant legal self-defence ability for all the talent care initiatives which work in a formal organization and have the above mentioned objectives within their founding documents.

The disadvantage of such a legal approach is, at least in the case of Romania, that possible sources of financing are also not mentioned or named. So there are no specific national funds which have the objective and duty to assure that there are sufficient funds for such activities and which should operate a transparent and in all aspects fair competition

⁸ 54. §.

Act of Higher Education from Hungary

http://net.jogtar.hu/jr/gen/hjegy_doc.cgi?docid=A1100204.TV

accessed 09.05.2014

⁹ 09.05.2014

¹⁰ Legea Educatiei Nationale

. Retrieved 30 September 2011 from

www.edu.ro [Website of Romanian Ministry of Education and Research]

XXIII, Anul 179 – Nr. 18: Legea educatiei nationale, publ.in Monitorul Oficial, 10.01.2011 [Operative Education Act of Romania]

system for these funds. In the lack of these, the financing of the talent care initiatives in Romania, at least for the higher education, is very uncertain.

In Hungary, for example, there are more foundations and funds which regularly, 2-3 times a year publish the amount of accessible funds and invite all the institutions for competition. This on one hand offers a long term safety for the nationwide system, but also forces all the actors to adapt to the requests of the fund-providers. In lack of powerful lobby which could influence the financing-conditions, non-standard and original forms could easily find themselves without financial support, despite the existing sources.

And this leads us to the better understanding of the possibilities which is „hidden`` in the Romanian legislative and financing environment in the field of talent care initiatives. As the Romanian legislation and public administration doesn't offer sure and regular financing, there are no criteria and requirements set towards the talent care initiatives. This offers a large space for new initiatives, innovation and the implementation of original technologies and methods. In a world in which the concept of education is largely in transition, where former taboos are challenged like the necessity of the ability of the pupils to be possess the ability of handwriting, local initiatives which can adapt to local needs and changing rhythm can be extremely valuable.

It is enough to mention the heterogeneity of the educational system. Not only the territorial inequalities make the Romanian public and higher education so differentiated, but there are whole regions with extremely large ratio of disadvantaged groups or with groups which sociologically differ from the majority. The most extreme cases are probably the rromas, where many times it can be observed that the educational system can hardly handle the situation and is unable to give to the majority of the rroma pupils a viable solution for their future, in the field of education. Even if the number of rroma students is higher education is relatively low, this is an important aspect for the future as it makes us understand how important the possibility of differentiation and local adaptation can be depending on the local peculiarities regarding economical development, ethnicity and other socio-economical factors.

As a summary we can affirm that in Romania neither the legislative instructions, nor the specific financial sources exist for talent care initiatives in the higher education. This gives key role to the local initiatives and for the specific implementations. There is thus no guarantee that a countrywide talent care system would develop, but local initiatives with enough enthusiasm from the teachers` and professors` side and with proper financing have large professional freedom to invent and implement the locally most appropriate forms of talent care.

Human resources

We do not know any statistics, which would show us how many persons of the current university-staff in the Hungarian higher education in Romania have experiences gained in any form of talent care. Obviously, those who have, could be the primary implementers of such initiatives at their local universities and faculties.

The role of the enthusiastic individuals who would encourage and promote talent care is more important in Romania, than in Hungary. The reason is the lack of the traditions and legal instructions. While in Hungary it is obvious that such initiatives are necessary , as it

comes out from the Act of Higher Education, in Romania basically it depends on individuals who realize it. If there are such people in the staff of the universities, probably we will see the expansion of the talent care initiatives, but it is likely that they will have to face some negative attitudes from their colleagues' side, as such initiatives would be like the typical situations of „creative destruction” (phenomenon through which new and innovative ideas, which are largely unpopular lead to a social progress by destroying older taboos and structures and by replacing it by more innovative and efficient ones¹¹).

Traditions and existing initiatives of talent care

There are two major forms of the talent care initiatives in the Hungarian higher education in Romania, and both have as root similar implementations from Hungary (which is not surprising, as the common language is only one connecting element, the other is, that recently due to the various scholarships and student and staff exchange programs more and more students and teachers spend some time in Hungary which becomes usually a regular stage during their studies or professional career).

The first form, worth to be mentioned is the so called TDK (Tudományos Diákkori Konferencia-Scientific Conference for Students) which is actually a scientific competition where the participants are required to prepare a paper and lecture on any topic related to their fields of study. A professional jury decides the value of the paper and whether the student should be qualified to the next, regional level. There is also a formal connection to the Hungarian system, as a typical Hungarian student at a Hungarian university in Romania presents his/her paper first at the local level, after that on a regional level (Transylvanian Conference for Students-ETDK-Erdélyi Tudományos Diákkori Konferencia) and some participants gain the right to take part at the National Scientific Conference (OTDK-Országos Tudományos Diákkori Konferencia), organized in Hungary at various locations depending on the field of science.

This form of talent care initiatives has the positive sides of being an institutionalized and formalized form of talent care and offers a few months-long possibility of cooperation for the students with the preparing teachers. It also develops multiple skills, as it not only introduces the students into the world of the scientific research, but also requires presenting skills.

However, this is just a limited form of talent care, as the involved students would not be integrated within the talent care completely, but only from the side of the academic research and writing and due to its limits this system is not complex enough to offer a wider range of self-developing facilities for the students and to exploit any unknown or hidden abilities.

The other branch of the talent care initiatives, which also has as model the Hungarian type, is the „szakkollegium” (College of Advanced Studies). We have already mentioned above how special the role of such institutions was in Hungary, and as for Romania, there are some existing and some rather inactive institutions. The most developed and the most similar to the colleges of Hungary is the Miko Imre College from Cluj-Napoca, offering training for

¹¹ Described precisely at the following source
Acemoglu, Daron-Robinson, James. A. Why nations fail? Crown Business, Boston, 2012 p 171

students of law and economics for the students of the Babes-Bolyai University. However, there are many other smaller colleges which not necessarily tend to follow the example of the colleges from Hungary as for structure and functioning.

However, the colleges from Hungary have regular contact with the Romanian institutions and have played a key role in the starting phase of these institutions. Even before the appearance of the first colleges in Romania, the Movement of the Colleges from Hungary organized the annual general summer camp in Romania, inviting local Hungarian intellectuals and students.

Almost two decades later, two local colleges organized the summer camp (which is not a simply summer program, but the main forum for the whole movement of the colleges with prominent invited guests) in Oradea. The students of the Rajk College, from Budapest visit every semester their counterparts in Cluj Napoca to offer and organize joint seminars on various economic topics.

These moments and tendencies clearly show, that on the supply side as a positive and encouraging factor can be mentioned the support from these colleges from Hungary.

The main elements of the „demand” side

As for the demand, our data are more vague and while on the „supply” side we have the possibility to mention long term tendencies which have been shaping the institutional and legal background of the talent care initiatives in the frame of the Hungarian higher education in Romania, from the side of the students` (and also from the side of the wider Hungarian community in Romania -a demand can arrive not only from the students themselves but from the micro-society and through the political representation it can create an institutional demand) we have changing tendencies and no possibility for long term analysis.

If we wish to get a clear image of what the students we can partly rely on relatively fresh research reports realized in this topic by Gergo Barna and Tamas Kiss. The research questions did not include any interrogation on the wish to participate in talent care initiatives, but indirectly we believe that can help us to get a clearer image on the topic. This research report not only reflects current opinions of the young persons in Romania but also has a comparative dimension as the same questionnaire was applied in 2008 and 2013. The survey was made on persons between the ages 18-35, but taking into consideration that the participation in the higher education is by far not only the privilege of the 18-23 years old persons and through second BA, MA and Ph.D trainings this whole range of age is a potential target for the higher education institutions, we evaluate that these data are useful in our case.

A relevant information is that they are significantly less satisfied with their current financial situation, in 5 years increased almost by ten percent of those who are rather unsatisfied. If the Hungarian students will have trust in the importance of studying and if the educational system can offer proofs (mainly by training young people who get easily employed after the faculty) that studying is worth and the better one manages to gain relevant training the more chances has in the life financially too, than the request for high-quality higher education and talent care initiatives which offer supplementary possibilities is likely to grow in our view. This observation of the young generation can influence effectively the visions and decisions of their parents` generations too, as double-direction communication is

more developed as ever before according to numerous experts¹². Likewise, if the parents' generation would re-discover the importance of training and education, it could be a positive incentive for the students to try to achieve higher results¹³ which could also be a factor which raises demand for talent care initiatives in the higher education.

An other important element could be if the students from Hungary would come to study in Romania at the Hungarian higher education institutions of the country. This migration has already started and if it continues to grow and extend than these students from Hungary can not only mean a greater rivalry for the free places in the higher education (and as a result more performing students who actually will enter the university) but as coming from Hungary they can possibly be attracted by the idea of founding and organizing colleges for advanced studies, a form of talent care which is well known and widely positively interpreted in the Hungarian society.

A possible encouragement and positive pressure could come from the business sphere. There are many examples worldwide that companies tend to choose the best students in study fields which are vitally important for them, and offer financing for their studies and in return they expect the student to start his/her career at their company. On a higher level, whole faculties and departments can be financed and shaped by companies' special demands, and this could generate the appearance of a more institutionalized and well financed form of talent care.

Obviously, the above mentioned scenarios are partly hypothetic. They are based on worldwide experiences and possible factors which may contribute to the growing and more determined „demand” side for talent care in the Hungarian minority higher education in Romania.

Conclusion

Since the worldwide expansion of the higher education, there have been questions about the possibility of differentiating among the students in a positive way. Not through discrimination, but through offering special attention, financing and the possibility of professional and personal development through various talent care initiatives. In this study we try to adapt global and regional tendencies and experiences for the Hungarian minority higher education. As the legislative context is rather liberal and permitting but the financial sources however uncertain, a key role could have the human background and personal motivation of the university-staff members which would like to be involved or would be ready to play a key role in the founding and managing of talent care initiatives.

As the analyzing framework we chose to set a supply-demand model and we mentioned the most relevant factors of each. This study, based on document analysis and the evaluation of possible future scenarios (based on local peculiarities and former global and regional experiences) will hopefully be able to help students, university-staff and decision makers who might have a role in the expansion of the talent care initiatives at Hungarian universities in Romania.

¹² Gábor, Kálmán. Az ifjúságkutatás irányai a kilencvenes években. *Educatio* 1995/2, p. 191

¹³ Ogbu, J. U.-Gibson, M. ed. *Minority Status and Schooling*. Garland Publishing, New York, 1991 in Pásztor, Adél. Őshonos kisebbség mint nem őshonos kisebbség-Ogbu kulturális-ökológiai elméletének tesztelése Európában. *Szociológiai szemle*, 2006/2 p.10

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THE UNIVERSALITY OF THE TEACHER

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Abstract: Being a teacher means art but also a risk assumed. Preparing to teach, to teach others how to learn is never ending and a work involving human responsibility, first of all, a lot of patience, many moments of uncertainty, deterrence and many hours of study, and the results cannot be measured, often, neither the qualitative nor quantitative, not immediately. However, at the end of this road, you can expect many joys and satisfactions.

The teacher is not the person who proposes only content, form and requires certain behavior, universal. The class teaches students more than a subject, learning a life lesson. The teacher stimulates and fosters students' curiosity for new things, social behaviors, shapes them strengthens confidence in them and helps them to find their identity.

Carrying out these tasks depends on the extent to which the teacher has the qualities and skills required for centering mainly on the expectations, needs, desires and interests of the students. Teaching of universal vocation, regardless of the identity of the teacher they are characteristic of three essential elements: the love of teaching, faith in human values, cultural awareness and social responsibility towards the child, towards the country, against all of humanity.

The art of teaching and others is based on communication and design experiences with particular personal in nature. The Act of creation, self expression in educational communication relationship keeps the fact of "art education". The art of communicating is the preserve of teachers "teaching born", because it implies to be or not to be equipped for this, to have that spark of talent, that given that sure can't teach.

Keywords: education, art, universal, teacher, talent

Modelul universal al profesorului

Pentru a fi un model universal profesorul trebuie să se identifice cu idealul cultural -educativ și să trăiască autentic în valorile umanității. Pentru el, binele, frumosul ori libertatea și solidaritatea chiar trebuie să existe.

Structura universală a personalității profesorului poate fi raportată la principalele categorii de motivații care determină învățarea școlară: afiliativ, de autotransformare și cognitiv. În realitate, nu se vorbește de trei tipuri de motivație pură, ci de predominanță relativă a unei categorii, concomitent cu existența celorlalte, găsindu-și corespondent într-un anumit tip de personalitate a profesorului, care și ea are o structură complexă cu virtuala posibilitate de dominanță a unor trăsături care pot favoriza învățarea școlară.

S-a constatat că cel mai buni profesori sunt în general pasionați de domeniul pe care îl predau. Ei folosesc clasa ca pe un laborator de comunicare, ajungând să producă schimbări la elevii lor printr-o structurare atentă a conținutului de predat.

Universalitatea modelului profesorului ideal poate fi diferit în conștiința și opinia elevului, a cadrului didactic însuși și eventual în a observatorilor. Însă, arta de a-i învăța și forma pe alții se bazează pe comunicarea și proiectarea unor experiențe cu precădere de natură personală. Actul de creație, exprimarea sinelui în relația de comunicare educațională ține de fapt de „arta pedagogică”. Arta de a comunica didactic este apanajul unor profesori „înnăscuți”, căci ea implică a fi sau nu dotat pentru acest lucru, a avea aceea scânteie de talent, singura care nu se poate învăța.

Ca direcție de cercetare, problematica universalității aptitudinii pedagogice preocupă pe

psihologii și pedagogii din întreaga lume. Ea vizează două direcții majore de manifestare, una privind măiestria didactică, ca modalitate aptitudinală de predare și verificare a cunoștințelor și, a doua, măiestria educațională, ca modalitate de fixare a unor relații optime și eficiente cu elevii.

Universalitatea aptitudinii pedagogice poate fi definită ca: formațiune psihologică complexă la nivelul personalității didactice, bazată pe un anumit nivel de dezvoltare și funcționare a proceselor și funcțiilor psihice, care asigură un comportament educativ-eficient.

O definiție mai generală a aptitudinii pedagogice este și aceea dată de Marcus Stroe: „particularitatea individuală care surprinde și transpune în practică modalitatea optimă, conform particularităților elevilor, de prezentare a cunoștințelor și de formare a intereselor de cunoaștere a întregii personalități a elevului”.

E limpede faptul că un profesor bun nu se poate rezuma doar la transmiterea unor informații științifice în fiecare zi elevilor fără a le putea prezenta pe înțelesul lor. Pentru a se bucura de respectul elevilor lui, educatorul trebuie să întrunească mai multe calități speciale dintre care sunt menționate de către I. Popescu- Tăușan (1995): *„solide cunoștințe de specialitate bazate pe un larg orizont cultural; capacitatea de a expune clar și sistematic cunoștințele predate, de a le demonstra și sistematiza; obiectivitate în relațiile cu elevii în procesul de evaluare și notare a cunoștințelor ...; exigență și în același timp respect față de personalitatea elevilor, încredere în ei, sinceritate, acceptarea dialogului (desfășurat de la egal la egal cu elevii); spirit de dreptate...Acestora li se adaugă ținuta vestimentară, vocabularul folosit în relație cu elevii, comportamentul în general. ”*

Cercetătorii vorbesc de două mari categorii de aptitudini pedagogice care presupun un dublu proces de cultivare și antrenare, universal valabile pentru orice profesor:

- Pregătirea de specialitate
- Pregătirea psihopedagogică

Printre caracteristicile „bunului profesor” după David G. Ryan (1960) se regăsesc: comprehensiunea și simpatia în munca cu elevii, prevederea reacțiilor altora în diverse contexte sociale, întâmpinarea trebuințelor fiecăruia, prevederea și încercarea de a rezolva dificultățile posibile. Ryan consideră că aceste caracteristici pot fi încadrate în trei patternuri principale: comprehensiunea, disponibilitatea și deschiderea spre celălalt.

Jozef Stefanovic consideră că trăsătura esențială a tactului pedagogic e capacitatea de a înțelege elevul. Robert Dottrens enumeră ca indicatori ai aptitudinii pedagogice următorii:

- un echilibru intelectual, mintal și nervos excelent
- pe plan intelectual: curiozitate, gustul observației, simțul critic față de părerile altuia luciditate față de sine însuși
- nevoia de înnoire, care favorizează adaptarea lui la cerințele elevilor
- pe plan social: tinerețea spiritului, bunăvoința, înțelegerea, autoritatea firească.

J.B. Rochat consideră ca și calități specifice necesare institutorului intuiția, omenia, simțul umorului și răbdarea. Hubert Rene remarcă printre trăsăturile unui cadru didactic: bunul simț, intuiția psihologică, ordinea și claritatea, spiritul metodic și ordonat, ca și calități morale: obiectivitate, generozitate, stăpânire de sine, capacitate de critică, modestie, bună dispoziție iar ca elemente vocaționale: iubirea pentru copil, simțul valorilor și simțul misiunii.

P.N.Gonobolin (1962) relevă o serie de aptitudini speciale proprii cadrelor didactice printre care: capacitatea de a cunoaște și a înțelege elevul, de a stabili relația necesară cu fiecare elev sau cu întreaga clasă, observația pedagogică (tendința de a observa cele mai mici semne ale dezvoltării elevului), capacitatea de a transmite în mod accesibil cunoștințe, aptitudinea organizatorică (în cadrul lecției și în

clasă), atenția distributivă, imaginația pedagogică, tactul pedagogic (relația justă cu părinții și elevii, simțul măsurii în administrarea pedepsei etc).

N. Mitrofan (1988), pornește de la teza că aptitudinea pedagogică este o modalitate relațională, un mod de confruntare a mai multor subiectivități. În această situație, competența didactică implică existența unei componente psihosociale concretizată în capacitatea profesorului de a pătrunde în psihologia de grup, de a stabili ușor contacte cu membrii lui, de a anticipa anumite fenomene de grup, de a comunica, influența și controla eficient grupul.

Profesorul trebuie să fie un bun și fin cunoscător al psihologiei relaționale pe de o parte, iar pe de alta să dispună de acele capacități relaționale care să-i permită o permanentă trecere de la propriul său sistem de referință, la cel aparținând unui elev, mai multor elevi, întregii clase. N. Mitrofan conchide că una dintre cele mai importante capacități ale profesorului este aceea de a se dedubla, observând și lucrând cu grupul dintr-o dublă perspectivă: cea proprie, analizând și conturând fizionomia grupului educațional cât mai obiectiv și din perspectiva grupului și a elevilor, privind cu ochii acestora ceea ce se întâmplă.

Din ce în ce mai acut, în cadrul formării profesorilor, se pune accentul asupra capacităților de gestionare interactivă în clasă, asupra relațiilor stabilite cu elevii, domeniu unde se constată puținătatea cunoștințelor formalizate asupra practicilor de acest tip în situații pedagogice. Din ce în ce mai mult se insistă asupra necesității formării unei competențe pedagogice relaționale.

Dacă ne raportăm la aptitudinea unui profesor ca la o modalitate relațională prin intermediul căreia orice informație trebuie să devină în „bun” care se deplasează de la profesor la elev, nu putem ignora faptul că structura psihologică a aptitudinilor pedagogice implică mai multe componente care asigură tipuri diverse de competențe aflate în strânsă interdependență. N. Mitrofan (1988) vorbește despre o *competență morală* (ansamblul de capacități care asigură o bună funcționalitate a conduitei etico -morale a cadrului didactic), o *competență profesional științifică* (asigurată de ansamblul de capacități necesare cunoașterii unui anumit obiect de învățământ), o *competență psiho - pedagogică* (capacități necesare pentru „construirea” diferitelor componente ale personalității elevilor, capacitatea de a înțelege elevul, capacitatea de a crea noi modele de influențare instructiv - educativă etc), o *competență psihosocială* (abilități pentru optimizarea relaționalii umane, capacitatea de a comunica ușor și eficient cu fiecare elev în parte, dar și cu clasa de elevi, capacitatea de a adopta cu ușurință diverse stiluri de conducere).

Aptitudinea pedagogică apare ca principală modalitate de operaționalizare a conținutului universalității personalității profesorului, cu un subsistem instrumental - operațional care asigură funcționalitatea acestuia în raport cu derularea concretă a segmentelor conduitei educaționale. Ea provine din organizarea în sistem a unor aptitudini general umane, cu propulsarea pe primul loc a unei aptitudini pilot după tipul de activitate, care nu numai că este maxim dezvoltată dar le și influențează, subordonează și transgresează pe toate celelalte.

Universale sunt și *efectele nivelului de empatie al profesorului*:

- a. *atitudinea față de elevi*
- b. *felul de predare*
- c. *atmosfera în clasă*
- d. *modalitatea de evaluare*
- e. *rezultatele elevilor*

Fiind prin excelență adresativă și stimulatorie, comunicativitatea didactică presupune o bună cunoaștere psihologică a elevului, o instruire diferențiată în funcție de capacitatea de a înțelege, gândi și

simți a fiecărui elev. În acest caz, susținerea majoră este asigurată de empatie. S-a demonstrat experimental că, prezentă în grade diferite la fiecare individ, capacitatea empatică are la profesor valențe aptitudinale și se actualizează sub formă comportamentală manifestă. Atât capacitatea cât și comportamentul empatic se inserează în structura de personalitate a profesorului, potențându-se reciproc. De asemenea, în structura de personalitate a unui profesor competent este necesară o articulare optimă a empatiei față de colectivul de elevi cu empatia față de fiecare elev în parte. Când vorbim de empatie în câmpul educațional este necesar să diferențiem două aspecte: pe de-o parte transpunerea în universul psihic al elevului pentru a-l înțelege și, în consecință, pentru a realiza un proces instructiv - educativ mai adecvat, eficient și pe de altă **parte**, transpunerea în rolul de educator (elocvent, afectiv și exigent, apropiat dar și distant).

Profesorul joacă un rol în fața clasei, prin aceasta apropiindu-se de activitatea actorului pe scenă, rol pe care îl compune mintal până la un anumit punct. Actorul ca și profesorul nu încearcă nemijlocit trăirea afectivă respectivă, ci evocă stări anterior cunoscute prin experiența altora. Empatia profesorului este însă similară numai până la un punct cu cea a actorului. Un actor bun, elocvent nu înseamnă implicit un profesor bun. Actorul transmițând mesajul semantic, poate, prin intermediul empatiei, să păstreze tensiunea emoțională a acestui mesaj. Profesorul, în schimb, trebuie câteodată să-și modifice și mesajul semantic și trăirea empatică în funcție de particularitățile de vârstă ale celor cu care lucrează ca și în raport cu condițiile conjuncturale apărute pe parcursul lecției. În educație, primează obiectivitatea și precizia științifică, cu atât mai mult cu cât elevul crește în vârstă. Empatia didactică este subordonată elementului cognitiv.

Stilul empatic se caracterizează prin „capacitatea de transpunere în cadrul intern de referință al altora, folosind ca mijloc de înțelegere și dezimplicare a trăirilor și atitudinilor celuilalt, propria sa experiență afectivă. Obiectivitatea în cunoașterea celorlalți se datorează, în parte, acestei îmbinări între utilizarea propriei experiențe afective și transpunerea în psihologia modelului extern. Prin acest mecanism psihologic empaticul reușește să perceapă lumea „ca și cum” ar fi modelul extern. Reprezentanții stilului empatie își folosesc experiența lor afectivă pentru a descifra modul de referire la realitate a modelului extern prin căutarea similarității structurale cu acesta.”²⁶ Această conduită empatică individuală se manifestă relativ independent de diferențele structural psihice prezentate de persoanele cu care empatizează. Constanța conduitei empatice rezultă din totalitatea reacțiilor empatice ale subiectului empatizator față de parteneri, reacții care în majoritatea lor se grupează în jurul mediei empatiei acestuia față de cei cu care empatizează. Adică, cu cât aceste reacții se plasează în jurul mediei subiectului, ele vor exprima o constanță comportamentală, iar depărtarea de la medie va reprezenta un stil empatie inconstant.

Prin intermediul empatiei nu se recunosc doar stările emoționale ci și felul în care acționează celălalt într-o situație, ceea ce a simțit el atunci. Acuratețea inferării depinde de acuratețea cu care este percepută situația din perspectiva celuilalt și de claritatea și corectitudinea cu care se surprinde semnificația ei pentru asta. Având în vedere că preluarea de rol presupune proiectarea propriilor semnificații pentru interpretarea situației, acuratețea va depinde în mare măsură de gradul de similaritate între semnificațiile ce le acordă cei doi aflați în relațiile diferitelor situații sau evenimente.

Eugene A. Weinstein (1973) acordă un rol important empatiei în cadrul comportamentelor interpersonale. În concepția sa, empatia cere o apreciere cu acuratețe a modului celuilalt de a defini situația. El apreciază că la baza empatiei stă și o sensibilitate față de parametrii relevanți, pentru că în afară de configurația globală a stimulilor disponibili într-o situație dată, este necesară și sesizarea acelor stimuli care au o relevanță inferențială pentru modul în care ceilalți își construiesc realitatea. O parte din

aceasta, ca de exemplu, sensibilitatea la producția verbală, semnificația culturală a gesturilor, expresivitatea facială sau inflexiunile vocii sunt învățate, dar prelucrarea acurată de rol presupune mai mult decât cunoașterea acestor semnificații comune, o sensibilitate crescută față de anumiți parametrii care dă posibilitatea discernerii diferențelor interindividuale în raport cu modul de interpretare al acelorași semnificații de către același individ în situații diferite. Profesorul empatie „ascultă” cuvintele în aceeași măsură în care ascultă emoțiile și dispozițiile.

Vasile Pavelcu consideră că arta de a preda presupune pe lângă stăpânirea cunoștințelor, claritatea și plasticitatea expunerii alimentate de voiciune și pasiune științifică, cât și aptitudinea deosebită de transpunere în situația ascultătorului, a elevului sau a studentului. Această transpunere nu trebuie să atingă limitele unei extreme identificări. Empatia, în acest caz, trebuie să exprime o reacție atitudinală (intelectiv-afectivă) în care dragostea față de copil să fie subordonată nevoii de a-l înțelege și ajuta. I.S. Firu spunea: *„Nu te coborî la nivelul copilului ca să faci teatru, nu ca să-l umilești sau să te umilești pe tine, ci pentru a crește din nou, împreună cu el, a simți din nou tu emoția marilor creatori, a relua și verifica adevăruri acceptate.”*

Cu alte cuvinte, capacitatea empatică proprie unui bun cadru didactic vizează un anumit model de identificare psihologică cu copilul, dublat de condiția păstrării unei distanțe aptă să poată cuprinde întreaga problematică a colectivului școlar. Gilles Ferry sublinia faptul că distanțarea îi permite profesorului să-și mențină o stare de disponibilitate față de fiecare elev, în schimb apropierea în ajută să înțeleagă empatic doleanțele lui. Excesul manifestat într-o direcție sau alta, ca și excluderea totală a unor asemenea modalități psihologice din comportamentul profesorului, conduce inevitabil la un eșec pedagogic. Un profesor extrem de empatic fără un filtraj rațional al comportamentului de apropiere de elev poate obține inițial unele succese dar în timp, devenind robul acestei identificări pierde din vedere tocmai misiunea penau care se află în școală- aceea de a interveni în formarea elevului și nu numai de a-i înțelege viața sa interioară.

Pe de altă parte, un profesor slab empatic, extrem de detașat de psihologia elevului, se va impune poate inițial față de unii elevi, dar va crea cu timpul premisele unei rupturi între el și aceștia. El nu va reuși să-și explice obiectiv diferitele forme de comportament ale elevilor, le va da o interpretare prea subiectivă, iar modalitățile educative la care va recurge, vor fi întâmplătoare din acest motiv. La fel, pentru un cadru didactic care nu-și pune în nici un fel probleme privind înțelegerea și explicarea comportamentului copilului va avea, la rândul lui, un comportament rutinier, iar efectele educative vor întârzia să apară.

Acest echilibru între empatie și distanțare în comportamentul profesorului în clasă privește întreaga desfășurare a procesului instructiv-educativ. De aceea este greșit să se lucreze într-o clasă numai cu elevii buni, din pretextul că aceștia ar trebui să profite în primul rând de atenția școlii. O lecție interesantă și accesibilă devine atractivă pentru întreaga clasă. Dar aceasta depinde în exclusivitate de aptitudinea cadrului didactic, de înțelegerea psihologiei elevilor, de conduita empatică a profesorului.

Marylee Taylor studiază factorii mediatori privind așteptările profesorilor în legătură cu abilitățile copilului ca premisă a relației profesor-elev. Sunt luați în considerare patru factori. Primul este apreciat a fi *climatul*, urmărindu-se câteva aspecte comportamentale din partea profesorului, și anume: zâmbetul, mișcări aprobatoare ale capului, aplecarea înainte, căldura vocii și contactul ocular cu elevii. Cel de-al doilea factor este denumit *input* și se exprimă prin pașii pe care îi urmează profesorul în predare. Cel de-al treilea factor este denumit *output* și se referă la ocaziile de răspuns pe care le oferă copilului (dificultatea întrebărilor, răbdarea în așteptarea răspunsului). În legătură cu acest factor se semnalează prezența fenomenului de nerăbdare manifestat prin întreruperea răspunsului elevului, latența

mică între întrebare și răspuns, ca și prezența fenomenului de persistență, manifestată după o eroare făcută de copil sau prin repetarea întrebării la care s-a răspuns incorect. Cel de-al patrulea factor se numește *feedback* și implică:

- a). Aprecierea incidenței feedback-ului (procentajul răspunsurilor corecte urmate de întărire)
- b). Aprecierea lungimii feedback-ului (timpul petrecut cu aprecierea răspunsurilor corecte)
- c). Lungimea feedback-ului incorectitudinii (timpul mediu petrecut cu reacția la un răspuns incorect)
- d). Omiterea feedback-ului pozitiv (procentajul răspunsurilor corecte urmate fie de tăcere, fie de un răspuns ambiguu)
- e). Omiterea feedback-ului negativ (procentajul răspunsurilor incorecte urmate fie de tăcere, fie de un răspuns ambiguu). În legătură cu acest factor se mai ia în considerație și ajutorul inadecvat oferit de profesor atunci când emite răspunsul și atunci când formulează întrebarea.

Un profesor empatic poate folosi cu eficiență acești factori mediatori ca premisă a optimizării relațiilor sale cu elevii.

Nu se poate neglija și o altă direcție importantă în fixarea relațiilor de cooperare, de încredere reciprocă între profesor și elev, și anume, aceea a evaluării corecte, obiective, stimulative a nivelului de cunoștințe. Transformarea notei școlare într-o modalitate coercitivă nu duce mai departe decât la efectul că elevul va învăța pentru notă- cei buni pentru note mari, iar cei slabi pentru note de trecere, și nu va fi o antrenare colectivă în efortul învățării. De aceea, folosirea notei ca o modalitate stimulative, dependentă nu numai de nivelul cunoștințelor, dar și de interesul manifestat în învățare, precum și de puterea de asimilare la un moment dat, va fi o nouă dovadă a înțelegerii empatică a profesorului pentru elev.

Un comportament empatic din partea profesorului va asigura și baza influenței pertinente asupra educației elevului, asupra motivației sale pentru muncă, asupra orientării sale școlare și profesionale, asupra fixării unui comportament moral dezirabil pe măsura cerințelor societății.

Concluzii

Cel dintâi lucru pe care orice bun profesor trebuie să-1 aibă în vedere este următorul: elevul nu este o noțiune abstractă, ci o realitate vie; el vine la școală nu numai cu inteligența sa, ci cu întreaga sa personalitate, cu emoțiile sale, dorințele sale, sentimentele sale, interesele sale etc. Această realitate nu trebuie pierdută niciodată din vedere nu numai pentru că în afara acumulării de cunoștințe educatorul trebuie să pună și problema dezvoltării armonice a personalității elevului, ci și pentru că inteligența nu este decât un instrument, un mijloc de satisfacere a trebuințelor și tendințelor organismului. Atâta vreme cât pedagogul nu ține seama de impulsurile, dorințele, interesele copilului și nu caută sau nu știe să le influențeze și orienteze într-o direcție constructivă, activitatea sa profesională și nu numai va fi stânjenită, putând deveni și periculoasă.

Din întregul domeniu al vieții emotiv - active, școala a avut în vedere până acum numai emoția de frică, mai ales frica de o pedeapsă fizică. Această emoție a fost utilizată de către pedagogi pentru a direcționa conduita elevilor. Ori se știe că frica, mai ales când este intensă, cauzează copilului diferite reacții care mai degrabă îl împiedică decât îl ajută să răspundă adecvat la o situație dată. Adevăratul profesor trebuie să caute să mobilizeze toate energiile active ale copilului, pentru ca activitatea care i se cere să se altoiască pe un interes, dorință, tendință sau trebuință a acestuia.

Cunoașterea rezultatului unei performante este de asemenea o metodă eficace de stimulare, și este o variantă a sistemului de educație cu sine însuși. Dacă elevul știe de fiecare dată cât a realizat, indiferent de ce performanță este vorba, el simte îndemnul de a se depăși, sau de a nu cobora sub o

anumită cotă în școlile americane a fost introdus și funcționează un astfel de sistem.

Profesorul are datoria de a încerca să cunoască cât mai bine pe fiecare dintre elevii săi, să-i cunoască aptitudinile și interesul vizavi de școală, pentru a-i putea crea dispoziția de a lucra, de a-și manifesta totalitatea inteligenței sale. „*Nimic nu contribuie mai mult la stabilirea unui raport mulțumitor (între examiner și examinat) ca încurajarea efortului copilului. Sub nici un motiv examinerul nu-și poate permite să arate dispreț față de un răspuns, oricât de absurd ar fi. În general, cu cât răspunsul este mai slab, cu atât mai mulțumit trebuie să se arate. O eroare trebuie trecută întotdeauna cu vederea, în afară de cazul când subiectul își dă el însuși seama de eroare, în care caz examinerul poate găsi o scuză: nu ești încă destul de mare pentru a răspunde la o întrebare ca aceasta, dar pentru vârsta ta ai răspuns foarte bine etc. Exclamații ca acestea: bine, minunat, trebuie utilizate fără economie. Orice amăgire inocentă este permisă, care menține copilul interesat, încrezător și la cel mai bun nivel*” (Terman).

În concluzie, un profesor trebuie să fie un foarte, foarte bun specialist și un iscusit pedagog, capabil de artă și măiestrie didactică. Aceasta pentru că pedagogul trebuie să-și dezvolte multe abilități, necesită echilibru interior stabil și multă capacitate de dăruire.

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PEDAGOGICAL TOLERANCE – INDICATOR OF THE TEACHERS' PROFESSIONALISM

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Abstract: The study presents a scientific discourse regarding the communication oriented towards the development of the communicative tolerance. Valuable in this respect are the didactic communication peculiarities and the structural components of the communicative competence which concede the rating of the affective problems within the educational context.

Keywords: communication, communicative tolerance, pedagogy of tolerance.

Tolerance, as the basis of the humanistic personality, is expressed by the ability to accept lifestyles, behaviours, customs, opinions, and ideas which are different from our own, as well as by the dilution of the conflicting reactions as the answer to the various environmental situations.

From the psychological perspective, **by tolerance we understand the ability to respect the ideas and the feelings which are opposed to ours, the potential to indulge the inconveniences without displaying aggressive behaviour** [9, p. 80].

Tolerance is the competence to accept others as the carriers/exponents of other values, of other ways of thinking, of other ways of behaving; by being aware of the human right to be different, insisting on this difference; by seeing the insight of the person, by looking at the world from both sides: mine and theirs [6, p. 45].

In T. Фадеева's point of view (2011) *pedagogic tolerance is an affective professional component that represents the teacher's emotional culture*. According to Țurcan L. (2013), **pedagogic tolerance** is a complex affective competence based on the humanistic convictions of accepting other lifestyles, behaviours, customs, opinions, beliefs, ideas, reflected in a system of skills (to listen, to understand, to respect, to accept people's individuality) in order to react adequately, to indulge different inconveniences and to show responsibility for the communication feedback through emotional resistance and a high level of professionalism in approaching the collocutors from the educational and social environment.

Any system of teachers forming / training is closely related to the social values which are in a permanent motion, taking into consideration the expansion and permanent reconsideration of the professional roles. In addition to the traditional responsibilities, new functions in new contexts / new environments are imposed on teachers by the society. Consequently, teachers have more functions to fulfil such as those related to student counselling, parent counselling, research and innovation in education. Hence, a balanced nerve system and emotional stability are the main requirements in an activity which is constantly confronted with unforeseeable circumstances.

The complexity of the teaching profession, the teachers' vulnerability to mental distress and emotional exhaustion are indicators for the need to study the emotional culture. The study of emotional culture helps teachers to develop emotional skills and ensure their mental health. It also determines the importance of teachers' professional training in order to

capitalize, in an intelligent manner, the emotional spectrum and the development of the functional and productive interpersonal relationships in schools.

The permanent need for adaptation, plus the powerful impulse of self-affirmation, consciousness of a possible conflict, the current commodities of modern schools, require certain features of the teacher's affective sphere embedded in psycho-pedagogical skills, the competence being understood as the indicator of the current potential and as the predictor of the subsequent developments and a soothsayer of the chances of success in a certain field. Therefore, pedagogic tolerance constitutes an important professional competence for teachers.

Pedagogic tolerance is analysed from different angles. Thus, when the *pedagogic tolerance* is referred to as *patience*, the scientific literature proposes the term **psychosocial tolerance**, when referring to the *resistance to tolerance* the specialized literature uses the term **psycho-physiological tolerance**. If the pedagogic tolerance is the result of decreased sensitivity, it is considered to be **passive psychological tolerance** and in the case when it is expressed in the development of certain strategies needed to address different problematic situations, then in the scientific literature it is called **active psychological tolerance**.

Pedagogic tolerance in relation to the destructive psychological influences in conflicting conditions determines the formation of the **tolerant thinking** in teachers aiming at increasing the ability to understand those who have a different way of thinking. Tolerant thinking enables people to find fault with the opponents in an effective and fair way.

Tolerant thinking is interdependent with the **communicative tolerance**. The values of the pedagogic tolerance arising in this context are *the patience, the opposition, and the resistance*. The problem of communicative tolerance is one of the most pressing issues for modern psychology and is examined not only in terms of interpersonal relations, but also in a broader social context.

The teachers' communicative feedback is an active and effective way of adapting teaching approaches to the multiple concrete situations contributing to the formation of the first right or wrong impression on expressing the individual communication skills, and to the formation of the beliefs regarding the quality of the communication skills based on which the partners will adjust their communicative behaviour, focusing on the evaluation and self-evaluation of the communicative competence.

The tolerance in the pedagogic communication involves philosophical, ethical, and aesthetic approaches regarding the basic characteristics of the teacher (in the true sense of the word) *psychological stability and equilibrium, the spirit of justice, pedagogical tact, kindness, goodness, a sense of observation, closeness to students, ability to make good judgments, patience, receptiveness, exigency, authenticity (lack of fake) in the communicative interaction with students, nonviolence*. The adequate updating in communication of the aforementioned affective characteristics will be referred to as **tolerance in pedagogic communication** [Ibid].

To prove the pedagogic tolerance in communication, a lot of social grace is needed, as well as a great psychological finesse and metaphysical subtlety in order to shape the personality with a unique and coherent behavioural attitude [11, p 67].

The low level of communicative tolerance is manifested by the fact that the person does not want to understand the other person's individuality; the individual considers himself to be a standard; shows categorical qualities, conservatism in the evaluation of others; cannot

inhibit the destructive emotional states; tends to transform, to re-educate the partner, is not able to forgive his/her partner's mistakes; expresses impatience towards physical or mental discomfort of his partner; hardly adapts to the behaviour of people around him [14, p. 362].

Pedagogic tolerance is a complex emotional competence based on humanistic beliefs of accepting different lifestyles, behaviours, habits, opinions, beliefs, ideas, reflected in a system of skills (to listen, to understand, to respect, to accept peoples' individuality) to respond adequately, to bear the inconveniences, to show responsibility for the feedback through emotional resistance and high professionalism in addressing the interlocutors from the socio-educational environment.

Intolerance is a global problem. Therefore, **pedagogy of tolerance** is intended not only to the school, but to the whole society as the creation of a global society tolerant in communication represents an international educational ideal [5, p. 140-14].

Tolerant conduct in communication is conditioned by the presence in human consciousness of **innate predispositions for tolerant communication**, which must be a principle and a rule in pedagogic communication [16, p. 28].

B. Reardon (2004) states that "the culture of a peaceful education involves the development of each individual's ability to maintain positive relationships, a sense of social responsibility and ethical maturity in making decision regarding the personal relationships and social conduct" [12, p. 26].

In the pedagogic communication the role of the attitudes is essential as it decisively influences the quality of the relationship (the attitudes are a crucial aspect of the relational climate) as well as the nature of the social relations. People's attitudes define the status of each one involved in the communication process, and determine the quality and nature of the elements that follow to be expressed. The optimum communication situation, in J. C. Abric's opinion, denotes a situation in which the one who talks does not feel that he is being judged, analysed, interpreted, guided by advice, manipulated, harassed by questions, but he feels that he is being just heard "[Apud: 7, p. 54].

It is J. Rousseau's belief that the human being recognizes its own imperfection so that he deliberately builds a device based on laws and norms rationally selected aiming at adapting his behaviour to a changing environment.

Therefore, some essential emotional skills are recommended to teachers: *the optimal emotional involvement, emotional activism, emotional flexibility, positive emotional orientation, emotional expression, emotional resistance to stress, emotional creativity*, etc.

The child expresses authentically when he feels that he is truly heard. The teacher is the one who must be willing to facilitate the child's turn of expression, showing a comprehensive attitude to control spontaneous reactions. The most important aspect is the fact that through communication, involvement and participation, people learn to be tolerant of one another. They realize that only through emotional culture they can contribute to shape a free and joint society, and this is only possible if there is mutual understanding and hard work [8, p. 76].

Feedback in communication can be provided through a communication based on emotional culture having the following features: (a) to create a favourable and positive affective learning environment by showing interest for the development of the communication with students; (b) to possess the strong explanatory character; (c) to structure the educational

messages in accordance with the pedagogical logic and emotional mood (desirable to be positive); (d) to have an active role as the sender and receiver that selects the information, makes it accessible, organizes it, and customizing it according to the students/pupils' specific age; (e) to carry out the affective / expressive functions, evaluative and self-evaluative functions, for both, the educators and the educated aiming at accomplishing the educational outcomes [2, p. 89].

Communicative tolerance is an emotional competence which is very important for teachers. The degree of forming teachers' communicative tolerance is determined by the peculiarities of the development of personality structures such as intelligence, emotions, will, motivation, communicative competence. It is determined by the peculiarities of the interpersonal relations and the kind of professional activity.

Stroe Marcus states that at the bottom of teacher's behaviour there are a number of features that embody the whole structure of the human personality. These features equally involve the cognition realm, the creativity realm, the motivational realm, the operational realm, the interpersonal realm, relational and value related realm [10, p.7].

Initial professional training activities must be directed towards the integration of pedagogic tolerance in higher education through the management of the negative emotions, acquiring positive emotional experiences and the creation of the emotional resonance which assures the empathic communication aiming at preventing the interpersonal conflicts in schools. The goal of forming the culture of communication through the communicative tolerance is: *developing communicative competences; developing personal competences; developing learning competences; developing organized social competences on the intrapersonal dimension and communicative-relational dimension*. The aforementioned competences are referred to in the specialized literature as **emotional competences**.

Pedagogic tolerance implies the control of the emotions that allow:

- to keep the balance in social relations;
- to maintain the conflicts within tolerable and solvable limits;
- to be aware of the emotional expressions since expressions are partly nonverbal;
- to control the communication (CV, CPV and CNV);
- to control our own emotions and to guide those of our partners;
- to control the impressions that we produce on others.

Pedagogic tolerance assessment criteria [13, p. 63]:

- expresses interest and a desire to understand the interlocutors in order to establish communicative interactions by means of pedagogical reflection;
- sets up pedagogical structure by applying the principles of tolerance;
- forcefully demands the strategies of framing up and maintaining the students' interest;
- demonstrates stress resistance and successfully manages the communicative relations;
- is able to express clearly the attitudes toward students;
- uses the multiplicity and the diversity of tolerance values in the pedagogical discourses;
- cooperates with students and accepts diversity;

- insists on carrying out the functions of communication based on emotional culture and democratic values.

The indicators of the emotional culture can be used in order to assess the pedagogic tolerance [2, p. 108]:

- emotional self-awareness;
- positive emotional orientation;
- optimal balance between emotionality and rationality;
- the ability to recognize his/her own emotions as well as the emotions of others;
- empathy;
- emotional strength;
- pro-social orientation;
- putting forward the humanistic imperatives as professional requirements;
- maximum insertion through pedagogical values;
- communicative tolerance;
- pedagogic responsibility and concern for the betterment of the education.

At the same time, we put forward the indicators of the pedagogic tolerance:

- to send explicit attitudes;
- to exploring various categories of pedagogic communication values, including the values of each individual student;
- to keep track of the structure and function of communication networks with students;
- to tend to use all the communicative functions of the pedagogic parlance;
- to actively cooperate with students by applying interactive teaching technologies;
- to establish an effective way of self-communication.

The descriptors of the pedagogic tolerance that we can define in this scientific context are:

- to resist to tightness and difficulties of the professional life;
- to face the professional ticklish realities accepting the differences as part of the educational environment;
- to elaborate the problem solving strategies in terms of occupational stress;
- to be able to adapt to the professional context.

The emotional culture of the effective teacher is primarily determined by the degree of empathy, communicative tolerance, self –assessment, self –confidence and the quality of his/her competences [10, p. 82].

Currently, the communicative tolerance is addressed in the context of studying the emotional culture as an indicator of a high level of emotional coefficient in the frame of special emotional skills. **Teachers are aware of the problems aroused as a result of underdevelopment of their emotional culture** because of the insufficiently developed tolerance: *verbal aggression, shortage of emotional energy, agitation and apathy, low rate of adaptation to the professional work environment and low resistance to emotional labour, mental and emotional exhaustion derived from professional overload.*

The low level of teachers' emotional culture is usually reflected in the communicative conduct and interpersonal relations by: emotional imbalance, interpersonal conflict, occupational stress, low resistance to the professional activity, lack of emotional and original expressiveness, minimized efforts of self-education and subjective evaluation, liability of the affective mood, incoherence in their actions, intolerance and lack of cooperation, etc. [1, p. 49], thus expressing as

Rocco M. (2004) stated "the tendency to trigger the haste of emotions and impulses" [4, p. 98], a fact which leads to the inadequate pedagogical reactions and supports the point view of the irrational character of the affectivity.

The degree of the formation of teachers' communicative tolerance is determined by the peculiarities of personality development such as intelligence, emotions, will, motivation, communicative competence. It is also determined by the person's gender and the peculiarities of the interpersonal relationships.

Currently, when the society faces many economic and social problems, there is a tendency for the emotional culture to decrease from one generation to another. In this context it is very important that teachers, in different ways, self-training inclusive, to acquire the emotional competences and to use them in a suitable and appropriate way in education. A tolerant person explores the interpersonal differences through dialogue, and tries to solve conflicts through discussion and arguments.

The betterment of the formation of cultural communication can be achieved through the implementation of the strategy of communicative tolerance development. **The high level of communicative tolerance is expressed in the following specific values:** *sensitive, thoughtful, balanced, emotionally mature, intelligent, demanding, self-conscious, value-oriented, disciplined, strong, positive, relaxed, self-motivated, self-determined, self-accomplished, self-inspired, original, flexible, nimble, creative, competent, adequate, curious, persistent, empathetic, friendly, mobilized, efficient, enthusiastic, sociable, eager, tolerant in communication, affective, resistant to emotional communication, emotionally expressive, experimenter, constructive, appeaser, charismatic, assertive, integrated, satisfied and natural when talking*, who guide the professional normativity and legitimates the social rules.

Certain expressive behaviours are reflected in actions whose purpose is to change the subjects' relationships and those in the surrounding environment, having an impact over the conduct of others. For these reasons, the need to communicate determines the uprising of certain peculiarities of pedagogic tolerance in the communicative conduct.

Pedagogic tolerance is a professional competence which is important and imperative to teachers, it is integrated in the professional referential. **The formation of the teacher's pedagogic tolerance creates prerequisites for the education for tolerance of pupils / students.**

Therefore, the aforementioned facts show over the perspectives of teacher training oriented towards the development of pedagogic tolerance for optimizing the communicative interaction in education, tolerant communication being possible through interactional synchrony, through simultaneous input in the sender and receiver's affective vibration, difficult to be achieved due to certain emotional difficulties which undermine the psychological compatibility of the partners involved in the communication process.

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OUTCOMES OF AN INITIAL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM OF DISADVANTAGED GROUPS IN PRIMARY AND PRESCHOOL EDUCATION

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Abstract: The Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences – Primary and Pree-school Pedagogy specialization – implemented an academic program, the first in new teacher training for disadvantaged groups for educational activities in primary and pre-school (primary and preschool Pedagogy).

The novelty of the program is its defining notes, which distinguish it from other academic programs for initial teacher training.

- The academic teacher training was designed and built under the authority MECTS in order to optimize the access to education for disadvantaged groups and promote school inclusion of Roma students.*

- Eligible applicant students were selected based on three criteria related to:*

- (a) prove that they belong to a community of disadvantaged groups, counties / areas with schools and classes that teach a significant number of Roma,*

- (b) satisfy the legal requirements for entering the admission session at Babes-Bolyai University, Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences and*

- (c) take, by signature, certain conditions, obligations and responsibilities arising from the agreement granting a scholarship funded from PHARE RO 2003/005-551.01.01 (Lot I) - Contract # 013 (2006-2009) .*

- Student participation in the academic training program was funded by a scholarship grant, which covered the full cost of tuition, under the law. Payment of the grant was made in cash at the beginning of each session activity.*

- Pedagogical curriculum for primary and pree-school Babes Bolyai preserved fundamental, specialized binding, voluntary and so on, but also included a package of appropriate discipline answering the educational needs of the Roma: Romani, History, culture and traditions of Roma, Romani language teaching methodology, teaching practice observation and teaching of the Romani language. The duration of the study program in pedagogy and preschool education was three years (academic years 2006-2009) and included a series of 38 students, whose graduates attended the graduation exam in July 2009.*

As the teacher training within the program has essentially the same characteristics of any academic program of initial teacher training, we will focus on the specific features of teacher training project for disadvantaged groups education and preschool pedagogy.

Keywords: Education, Initial training program, Disadvantaged group, Academic outcomes, Educational programs adapted

Specializarea Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar, din cadrul Facultății de Psihologie și Științe ale Educației, a derulat un program de nivel academic, în premieră la noi, destinat pregătirii profesorilor din grupuri defavorizate, pentru activități educative la ciclul primar și preșcolar (Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar). Caracterul de noutate al programului constă în notele definitorii ale acestuia, note care îl disting de celelalte programe academice destinate formării inițiale a cadrelor didactice.

- Programul academic de pregătire inițială a profesorilor din grupuri defavorizate a fost conceput și realizat sub autoritatea MECTS (în prezent MEN) cu scopul optimizării accesului la educație și pentru promovarea incluziunii școlare a elevilor din grupurilor dezavantajate.

- Candidații eligibili, studenții au fost selectați în baza a trei criterii corelate: (a) să facă dovada că aparțin unei comunități dezavantajate, din județele / zonele cu școli și clase în care învață un număr semnificativ de elevi din grupuri dezavantajate; (b) să satisfacă cerințele legale privind înscrierea la sesiunea de admitere la Universitatea Babeș Bolyai, Facultatea de Psihologie și Științe ale Educației și (c) să asume, prin semnătură, toate condițiile, obligațiile și responsabilitățile ce decurg din Contractul de acordare a unei burse de studiu cu finanțare de la proiectul PHARE RO 2003/005-551.01.01 (Lot I) – Contract #013 (2006 – 2009).
- Participarea studenților la programul academic de pregătire a fost susținut financiar prin acordarea unei burse de studiu, care a acoperit integral cheltuielile de școlarizare, în condițiile legii. Plata bursei s-a făcut în numerar, la începutul fiecărei sesiuni de activitate.
- Planul de învățământ la specializarea Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar a Universității Babeș Bolyai a conservat disciplinele fundamentale, de specialitate, obligatorii, facultative etc., dar a inclus și un pachet de discipline adecvate nevoilor educaționale ale comunităților dezavantajate: limba maternă; istoria, cultura și tradițiile din grupuri defavorizate; metodică predării limbii materne, practică pedagogică observativă și de predare a limbii materne. Perioada de desfășurare a programului de studiu în Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar a fost de trei ani (anii universitari 2006 – 2009) și a inclus o serie de 38 studenți, a cărei absolvenți au participat la examenul de licență în iulie 2009.

Deoarece programul de pregătire a profesorilor din grupurile dezavantajate are în esență caracteristicile oricărui program academic de formare inițială a profesorilor, nu vom prezenta în detaliu desfășurarea acestuia. Ne vom focaliza pe trăsăturile specifice ale proiectului de pregătire a profesorilor din grupurile dezavantajate în Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar.

Descrierea programului de studiu

Cursurile s-au desfășurat în sistemul de învățământului deschis la distanță, dar cu asigurarea tuturor resurselor și suporturilor necesare (materiale de studiu, tutorat, consultații etc.).

Anul I, II și III de studii s-au desfășurat în conformitate cu calendarul activităților agreed de studenți, formatori și echipa de proiect.

În fiecare semestru, pe parcursul celor trei ani, au avut loc câte două întâlniri de formare (tutoriale) și câte două întâlniri de recapitulări combinate cu examinări. Durata întâlnirilor de tutoriale a fost de maximum 16 de ore, iar cea a întâlnirilor de recapitulare și examinare de maxim 18 ore. De asemenea, în fiecare semestru a fost programată câte o întâlnire de re-examinare, cu rezerva că aceasta va avea loc doar dacă este necesar.

În intervalul dintre sesiunile de formare și sesiunile de examen studenții au primit sarcini de studiu individual și de învățare bazată de proiecte, sarcini care au fost formulate la fiecare disciplină din Planul de învățământ.

La începutul fiecărui an universitar, cursanții au primit suporturile de curs în format electronic pe CD.

Pe grupul de discuții <http://groups.yahoo.com/group/studentphareubb> destinat programului Phare au fost înscriși toți studenții, echipa de proiect și cadrele didactice. Pe acest grup s-au postat toate planificările întâlnirilor, suporturile de curs pentru a spori accesul studenților la informațiile legate de derularea proiectului. Pe lângă documentele de proiect, pe grup s-au realizat și discuții între echipa de proiect și cursanți sau între cursanți.

În fiecare an academic s-au realizat câte două interviuri de optimizare, înregistrate pe baza fișelor de interviu elaborate de membrii echipei manageriale a proiectului.

Examenele s-au desfășurat în câte două sesiuni, în fiecare din cei trei ani de studiu. Pentru anul terminal s-a adăugat o sesiune de restanțe, care a precedat examenul de licență. Fiecare sesiune de examene a fost planificată în zilele de vineri, sâmbătă și duminică, pe durata a două săptămâni consecutive. La fiecare disciplină din planul de învățământ examenul/colocviul a fost precedat de minim două ore de activități tutoriale, în scopul recapitulării materiei predate. De regulă, sesiunile de examene au fost programate în lunile ianuarie – februarie, pentru semestrul I și respectiv în lunile mai-iunie, pentru semestrul II. La acestea s-au adăugat sesiuni de restanțe în lunile februarie și septembrie.

Din rațiuni pedagogice, nu au fost planificate mai mult de patru discipline într-o sesiune de examinare, iar cele patru discipline au fost astfel alese încât formele de evaluare să fie echilibrate și variate – examen, colocviu etc.

Monitorizare, optimizare, evaluare, rezultate

Administrarea pedagogică a programului de studiu a fost realizată printr-un ansamblu de instrumente de monitorizare, optimizare, evaluare și stimulare a participării studenților.

Monitorizarea și optimizarea programului s-a realizat prin chestionare, interviuri, discuții individuale și de grup etc. De exemplu, pe toată durata programului de studiu au fost realizate interviuri individuale de optimizare în șase sesiuni, câte două sesiuni pe semestru, au participat în medie 35 studenți din cei 38 înmatriculați, deci s-au adunat date în peste 200 protocoale de interviu

Prezentăm, în continuare, procedura de lucru și rezultatele obținute într-o sesiune importantă de interviu din parcursul anului I de studiu, interviul de optimizare fiind procedura cea mai frecvent utilizată în monitorizarea și optimizarea parcursului de studiu.

Din documentele de înregistrare a interviului reiese structura interviului este compusă din patru secvențe relativ independente. Aceste patru secvențe reprezintă criterii/teme în baza cărora se va realiza analiza cantitativă și calitativă a datelor.

Prelucrarea cantitativă a datelor de interviu. S-a utilizat o *scală adjectivală cu cinci grade de evaluare*: excelent, foarte bine, bine, satisfăcător și slab, pentru fiecare din cele patru teme/criterii, care au fost operaționalizate astfel:

- Progresul școlar. În interviu studenții au fost invitați să relateze aspect privind nivelul achizițiilor învățării, nivelul de înțelegere a cursurilor, modul de operare cu cunoștințele.
- Aspecte organizatorice. Interviul a fost focalizat pe modul de organizare a programului de studiu, a cursurilor, examenelor, suporturilor primite și necesare în învățare, dificultăți existente ș.a.

- Aspecte personale. S-au notat relațiile studenților cu privire la facilitățile sau barierele personale și familiale care influențează participarea la activitățile de pregătire.
- Diverse. Studenții au fost solicitați să relateze ceea ce ei consideră necesar pentru îmbunătățirea activităților din program, inclusiv aspecte legate de deplasarea lor la cursuri, cazare, masă, resurse de informare, cheltuieli etc.
- La fiecare din cele patru teme de interviu, studenții au fost invitați să ofere cât mai multe detalii în relațiile lor, dar să facă și o evaluare de ansamblu, utilizând scala adjectivală propusă.

În urma prelucrării cantitative a datelor de interviu, s-au obținut în total un număr de 148 aprecieri ale studenților cu privire la calitatea programului de studiu și facilitățile ori barierele personale, aprecieri distribuite în scara de evaluare cu grade adjectivale excelent, foarte bine, bine, satisfăcător și slab sau insuficient. Datele sunt prezentate secvențial, în tabelul 1, tabelul 2 și graficul 1

Tabelul 1: Rezultate generale la interviul de optimizare- studenți din grupuri defavorizate

Nr.Crt. Studenți	Excelent	Foarte bine	Bine	Satisfăcător	Slab	Total
Nr. Crt.						
1. A. M.	1	2	0	1	1	4
2. B. B.	0	2	1	1	0	4
3. B. G.	2	1	1	0	0	4
4. B. Gh.	1	3	0	0	0	4
5. B. N. D.	1	2	1	0	0	4
6. B. V.	0	1	1	1	1	4
7. B. L.	2	2	0	0	0	4
8. C. I.	1	1	0	1	0	4
9. Ci. M.	2	1	0	1	0	4
10. Cr. M.	1	0	2	1	0	4
11. Cu. M.	1	2	1	0	0	4
12. D. I.	0	1	2	1	0	4
13. D. L.	0	1	2	0	1	4
14. D. N.	1	1	1	1	0	4
15. D. A.	1	2	1	0	0	4
16. D. M. A.	0	1	2	1	0	4
17. G. Mo.	1	2	1	0	0	4
18. G. Ma.	0	1	2	1	0	4
19. G. P.	0	2	2	0	0	4
20. G. Ș.	1	2	1	0	0	4
21. H. E.	1	1	1	1	0	4
22. H. M.	0	1	1	0	1	4
23. I. M. C.	1	2	0	1	0	4
24. K. I.	2	2	0	0	0	4
25. L. M.	0	3	1	0	0	4

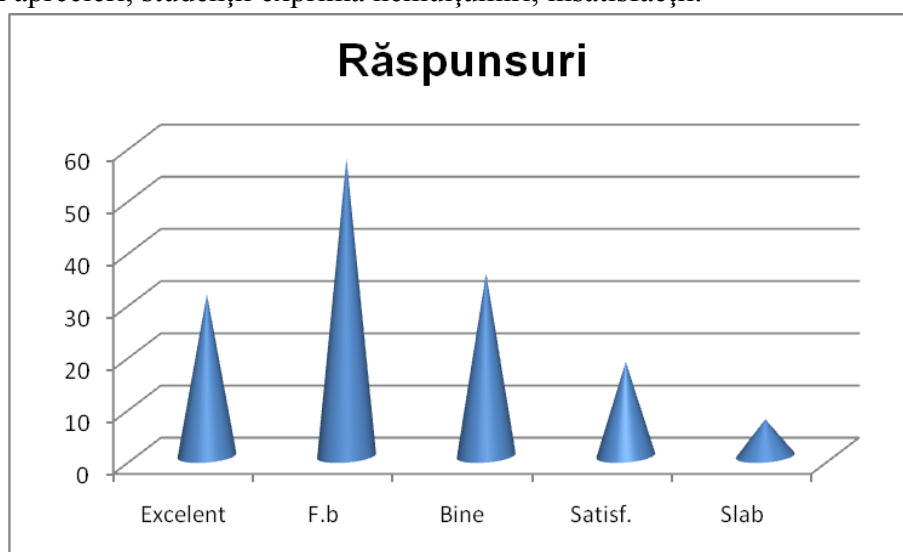
26. M. M.	0	2	2	0	0	4
27. M. E.	1	1	1	0	1	4
28. N. I. T.	2	1	1	0	0	4
29. P. D.	3	1	0	0	0	4
30. R. C.	0	1	1	1	1	4
31. R. M.– D.	0	1	1	1	1	4
32. S. B. C.	0	2	0	2	0	4
33. S. N. J. M.	1	2	1	0	0	4
34. S. G.	2	2	0	0	0	4
35. S. R. I.	0	2	1	1	0	4
36. T. A.	1	1	1	1	0	4
37. V. M.	1	2	1	0	0	4
TOTAL	31	57	35	18	7	148

Tabelul 2: Distribuția răspunsurilor / aprecierilor

Calificative	Excelent	Foarte bine	Bine	Satisfăcător	Slab	Total
Răspunsuri/frecvențe	31	57	35	18	7	148
Procente	20,95	38,51	23,65	12,16	4,73	100
PROCENTE CUMULATE	83,11					
PROCENTE CUMULATE				16,89		

Din 38 studenți înmatriculați la cursuri, au participat la interviu 37. Răspunsurile acestora sunt distribuite astfel: excelent, 31 aprecieri, 20,95%; foarte bine, 57 aprecieri, 38,51%; bine, 35 aprecieri, 23,65%, satisfăcător, 18 aprecieri, 12,16% și slab, 7 aprecieri, 4,73%.

După cum se observă în tabelul 2, s-au calculat procente cumulate pentru aprecierile polarizate, respectiv situate *deasupra mediei*, excelent, foarte bine și bine, pe de o parte și situate *sub medie*, satisfăcător și slab, pe de altă parte. Din așezarea polarizată a aprecierilor, rezultă că în 83,11% din situațiile relatate în interviu, studenții se proiectează pozitiv, iar în 16,89% din aprecieri, studenții exprimă nemulțumiri, insatisfacții.



Graficul 1: Distribuția gaussiană a aprecierilor

Aprecierile studenților se înscriu într-o distribuție normal (curba Gauss), o curbă sensibil accentuată în zona aprecierilor pozitive, așa cum ne arată reprezentarea grafică a datelor (Graficul 1). Distribuția gaussiană a datelor este invocată adeseori ca o premisă, chiar ca o condiție pentru a admite validitatea unor date de cercetare psihopedagogică.

Prelucrarea calitativă a datelor de interviu. În analiza calitativă a aprecierilor studenților am recurs la încadrarea acestora în categorii: + *aprecieri pozitive* ; – *aprecieri negative* și ± *aprecieri neutre sau ambivalente*. S-au introdus în această scară cu trei categorii ideile desprinse din relatările studenților în interiorul celor patru criterii/teme ale interviului. Se obține astfel un tabel de format 3x4 în care sunt reprezentate toate în categorii, toate aprecierile înregistrate în interviu (tabelul 3).

Tabelul 3: Categorii în analiza calitativă a datelor de interviu			
Categorii/ Teme	+ Aprecieri pozitive (număr)	- Aprecieri negative	± Aprecieri ambivalente/ neutre
Progresul școlar	Profesorii sunt buni, înțelegători. Studenții sunt mulțumiți. Profesorii predau plăcut, accesibil. Se învață lucruri noi, interesante. Cunoștințele sunt bine organizate. Profesorii explică bine. Este interesant, se învață despre elevi. Este mândru că a intrat în program. Îi place să lucreze cu copiii. Ce învață folosește în profesie. Foarte mulțumit de situația școlară. Este încântat că va avea o diplomă. Este mai bine văzut în comunitate. A învățat un mod mai bun de a învăța. Învață mult din orele de curs, peste 70%. Cadrele didactice sunt foarte bine pregătite. Profesorii se străduiesc să asigure înțelegerea cunoștințelor. Facultatea este o provocare. Simte că s-a schimbat în relațiile cu ceilalți	Dificultăți în înțelegere Se învață greu limba romani Este mai dificil decât a anticipat Profesorii sunt prea îngăduitori Îi este rușine să întrebe când nu înțelege Informația este prea multă Lipsă de unitate între cursuri Limbajul academic e prea complicat Este dificil pentru că nu a fost în școală Este îngrijorat de viitor Are puțin timp de studiu Regretă că nu este mai tânăr Profesorii vorbesc în cuvinte complicate	Așteaptă să finalizeze Nu este decis dacă va lucra în școală Nu sunt probleme
Aspecte organizatorice	Cursurile sunt organizate excelent. Cazarea este foarte bună. Toate sunt cum trebuie. Bursa este binevenită. Programul la sfârșit de săptămână este optim. Este înțelegere între studenți și profesori. Programul funcționează bine. Materialele	La cazare nu este suficientă curățenie. Bursa să fie mai mare. Pauzele sunt prea mici. Iarna este frig în spațiul de cazare.	Este în limite normale. Fără bursă nu s-ar fi putut studia Nimic de spus.

	didactice sunt bune. Află informații de pe grupul Yahoo. Este bine că se fac recapitulări înainte de examen. Apreciază profesorii pentru modul cum comunică cu studenții.	Timpul pentru un curs este prea scurt.	Nu este cazul. Cu sau fără probleme participă la cursuri.
Aspecte personale	Nu sunt probleme sau dificultăți. Nu amestecă problemele de acasă cu cele de la școală. Sunt problem, dar merită efortul de a participa la cursuri. Face față problemelor existente. Șefii de la locul de muncă sunt înțelegători. Are copii care îi stimulează frecventarea facultății.	Se suprapun activitățile cu cele de la a doua facultate. Vin la cursuri de la mare distanță. Are copii mici. Învăță mai mult noaptea. Sunt îngrijorări pentru familie. Religia nu îi permite să participe la cursuri sâmbăta.	
Aspecte diverse	Nu sunt problem deosebite. Este bine să se păstreze bursele. Colegii se înțeleg bine. Este acces la internet. Mulțumește pentru că a fost admisă în program. Așteaptă să facă practica pedagogic. Dorește să continue studiile la master. Propune să se organizeze cursuri pentru părinții din grupuri defavorizate.	Nu s-au făcut alegeri pentru un responsabil de an. Colegii nu se ajută între ei. Multiplicarea cursurilor costă mult. Cursurile sunt obositoare.	

Din analiza datelor prezentate în tabelul 3 se observă o ușoară dispersie a aprecierilor în cuprinsul tuturor ariilor tematice, dar mai ales plasarea aceleași sau acelorași aprecieri când la tema 1: progresul școlar, când la tema 2: Aspecte organizatorice. Este evidentă corelația, suprapunerea aspectelor referitoare la progresia învățării și organizarea programului de studiu și de aceea operatorul de interviu a permis studenților să plaseze aprecierile în oricare arie tematică.

A doua remarcă este următoarea: la primele două arii tematice din interviu, numărul aprecierilor pozitive este de departe mai bogat decât numărul aprecierilor negative și ambivalente. Notăm că, în general, aprecierile pozitive menționate în tabel au fost relatate destul de des în interviu, de mai mulți studenți, în timp ce aprecierile negative și cele ambivalente au fost mai personalizate, fără repetiții. Așadar, aprecierile pozitive asupra programului de studiu sunt purtătoare ale opiniei de grup, ele reflectă modul în care grupul de studenți este gratificat de programul de studiu. Acest aspect este în deplină consonanță cu datele cantitative, respectiv cu distribuția cantitativă a aprecierilor. Aprecierile negative sunt evidente purtătoare ale dificultăților individuale, care apar fie ca decalaj între nivelul și complexitatea sarcinilor de studiu, pe de o parte, și capacitățile rezolutive ale studentului, pe de altă parte, fie ca dificultăți în relație cu familia, dificultăți economice, sociale, de natură medicală, de natură relațională etc. Notăm că sprijinul echipei de proiect pentru optimizarea programului de studiu a pornit tocmai de la aceste aprecieri negative, personalizate, ceea ce a contribuit la valorizarea cât mai deplină a potențialului fiecărui student pe durata anilor de studiu.

În sfârșit notăm că studenții au apreciat programul de studiu în mod pozitiv, îndeosebi prin sublinierea următoarelor atribute: flexibilitate, noutate, atmosferă deosebită, concordanță cu necesitățile lor, cadre didactice profesioniste, cursuri structurate, de ținută, accesibile, predare plăcută, materiale interesante, organizare bună, suport, sprijin continuu, susținere financiară prin burse etc. La celălalt pol, sunt enunțate dificultățile și barierele personale, familiale, profesionale ș.a. Angajamentul studenților în activități pentru susținerea familiei, familiile adeseori numeroase și cu tradiția vieții împreună, sănătatea, confesiunea religioasă au fost principalele aspecte menționate de studenți ca obstacole în activitatea lor academică.

Evaluarea studenților și rezultatele școlare reprezintă o componentă importantă a programului de studiu. În acest demers, echipa de proiect a aplicat sistemul de examinare, notare și evidență a parcursului școlar stabilit prin regulamentele Universității Babeș Bolyai și a Facultății de Psihologie și Științe ale Educației.

În tabelul 4 sunt prezentate rezultatele medii obținute de studenți pe parcursul anilor de studiu, precum și rezultatele medii obținute la examenul de licență.

Tabelul 4: Rezultate medii pe ani de studiu și la examenul de licență

Nr. Crt.	Numele si prenumele	Nr. Matr.	Media an. I	Media an. II	Media an. III	Media generală	Media la licență
1	A.M.M.	1	8.75	8.19	8.45	8,47	10
2	B.G.	3	7.86	7.90	7.35	7,72	8,00
3	B.N.D.	4	8.02	8.40	7.80	8,08	8,00
4	B.G.	5	8.21	8.14	7.50	7,97	9,00
5	B.E.B.	6	8.40	8.39	7.60	8,15	9,50
6	B.V.	7	7.91	7.56	7.21	7,58	8,50
7	B.L.	8	8.50	8.75	8.63	8,62	8,50
8	C.M.L.	11	8.78	9.04	7.98	8,62	10
9	C.I.	41	6.95	8.03	7.78	7,57	8,00
10	C.M.	10	8.04	8.30	8.56	8,29	7,00
11	C.M.	12	8.42	8.51	8.06	8,34	10
12	D.M.A.	13	8.09	7.80	7.93	7,94	8,75
13	D.L.A.	14	8.82	8.96	8.52	8,78	8,00
14	D.I.	15	8.25	8.61	7.63	8,18	8,75
15	D.A.	16	7.56	7.96	6.91	7,50	8,75
16	D.N.	17	7.30	7.81	7.45	7,52	8,50
17	G.S.E.	18	8.84	8.96	8.17	8,68	10
18	G.P.M.	19	7.34	7.81	7.24	7,47	8,50
19	G.M.	20	6.88	8.01	7.39	7,41	6,00
20	G.M.	21	8.29	8.91	8.37	8,58	9,25
21	H.M.	22	7.00	7.35	7.09	7,14	7,00
22	H.E.	26	8.92	8.74	8.24	8,65	8,00
23	I.C.	27	8.43	8.28	7.65	8,14	8,75
24	K.I.	23	7.49	7.67	7.60	7,58	8,75
25	K.E.A.	24	8.17	8.41	7.54	8,06	8,00
26	L.M.	25	8.82	0.00	0.00	0	0

27	M.M.	40	7.98	8.15	8.02	8,05	9,25
28	M.E.	42	7.60	7.76	8.35	7,88	8,25
29	N.I.T.	28	7.61	7.97	7.25	7,62	9,00
30	P.D.M.	29	8.74	8.84	8.09	8,58	10
31	R.M.D.	30	7.73	8.02	7.04	7,62	8,50
32	R.C.E.	32	7.82	7.98	7.17	7,68	6,00
33	S.G.	33	7.34	7.63	7.65	7,53	6,50
34	S.B.C.	34	7.16	7.31	6.67	7,06	6,00
35	S.R.I.	35	8.35	8.87	7.95	8,40	6,00
36	S.N.M.	36	7.36	7.56	6.95	7,30	8,50
37	T.A.D.	37	7.30	7.70	6.41	7,16	7,00
38	V.M.	39	7.76	7.31	6.85	7,33	8,00
Medii generale			7.95	8.15	7.65	7.92	8.28
Valori maxime (cea mai mare medie)			8,92	9,04	8,63	8,78	10
Valori minime (cea mai mică medie)			6.88	7.31	6.41	7.06	6.00

Lectura datelor înscrise în tabelul de mai sus relevă că tendința centrală, valori medii, dispersia notelor, diferențe între mediile maxime și mediile minime etc. Sunt specifice grupului de participanți în studiul nostru. Astfel, de exemplu, este evidentă constanța rezultatelor, în fapt a performanțelor studenților din grupuri dezavantajate pe parcursul celor trei ani de studiu. Mediile grupului sunt: 7.95 în anul I; 8.15 în anul II; 7.65 în anul III și 7.92 în toți cei trei ani. Diferența între cea mai mare medie, 8.15 și cea mai mică medie, 7.65 este mult sub un punct, doar de 0.53 sutimi. De asemenea și rezultatele la examenul de licență (8.28) sunt apropiate de mediile obținute de studenți în anii de studiu.

Constatări enunțate mai sus conduc la ideea unui portret statistic al studenților, portret statistic dincolo de care se află trăsături individuale și de grup de asemenea specifice grupului de studenți din grupuri dezavantajate. Semnalăm că în grupul de studenți nu identificăm performanțe constante de excelență, peste 9 ori 10, cum apar adeseori în comunitățile de studenți. Evidențiem, de asemenea că nu identificăm performanțe mediocre, la limita trecerii anului de studiu, cum de asemenea apar în comunitățile de studenți. Grupul studenților din grupuri defavorizate este unul de performanță ușor peste nivelul mediu, iar această performanță rămâne constantă printr-un efort sistematic demonstrat de-a lungul anilor de studiu.

Constatări privitoare la tabloul specific al rezultatelor studenților din grupuri dezavantajate au fost puse spre verificare prin comparații directe cu rezultatele grupului de studenți, ambele grupuri înmatriculate în 2007 la Pedagogia Învățământului Primar și Preșcolar, forma de învățământ IDD.

Tabelul 5: Comparații între parcursul academic și rezultatele studenților din grupuri dezavantajate și rezultatele studenților înmatriculați în afara programului PHARE (examene de licență, sesiunea iunie 2009)

Note/ Studenți	Înmatriculați în 2007	Note de 10	Note peste 9	Note peste 8	Note sub 8	Licențiați în 2009
Studenți înmatriculați în programul	38	5	5	18	9	37

PHARE						
Studenți înmatriculați în afara programului PHARE	64	13	15	11	11	45
Diferențe	26	8	10	7	2	8

Cu privire la parcursul academic, potrivit datelor din tabelul 5, au fost înmatriculați 64 studenți neromi și au absolvit, cu examen de licență 45. Diferența, ca număr de studenți între cele două grupe, se reduce de la 26, în anul I la 8 în examenul de licență. În timp ce la grupul de studenți nu au terminat studiile 19 studenți, la grupul de studenți din grupuri defavorizate un singur student a fost exmatriculat.

Există diferențe între cele două grupe de studenți și în privința rezultatelor obținute la examenul de licență (examen desfășurat în condiții identice și cu aceleași comisii). De exemplu, mai puțin de 30% din studenții din grupuri defavorizate obțin note de 9 și 10 (10 studenți din 37), în timp ce studenții neromi obțin aceleași note în proporție de peste 62% (28 studenți din 45).

Potrivit observațiilor noastre, coroborate cu datele de interviu, cu tematica dezbaterilor individuale, cu rezumatele statistice ale rezultatelor de parcurs și finale, grupul studenților din grupuri defavorizate s-a manifestat ca un grup puternic orientat spre sarcină, puternic determinat la autodepășire, cu disponibilitate la efort, cu voința de a valorifica cât mai deplin șansa de a obține calificare în Pedagogia învățământului primar și preșcolar. Apreciem că rezultatele academice bune, obținute de studenții din grupuri defavorizate sunt o măsură bine determinată a capacităților și a eforturilor lor și acestea se vor exprima și dezvolta în carieră și în programele de formare profesională continuă.

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NATIVE ENGLISH TEACHERS OR NON-NATIVE TEACHERS. WHO ARE THE BEST?

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Abstract: It is a well-known fact that the global need for English language teachers in general, and for native English teachers in particular, is increasing in the education market on a daily basis. The paper at hand reflects the motives behind this increasing demand and crystallizes the advantages and disadvantages of having a native English teacher and a non-native English teacher as the guide throughout the teaching/learning/evaluation process.

Keywords: teaching English, native English teacher, non-native English teacher, expertise teacher.

Introduction

It is a well-known fact that the demand for English language teachers is increasing nowadays in the education market. According to Braine George, historical evidence suggests that English was being taught as a second or foreign language as far back as the 15th century. During the 16th century, the rise of England as a maritime power and the expansion of the British Empire led to the recognition of English as an important language alongside French, Italian, and Latin, and to a growing interest in learning English [1]. Moreover, with the development of new technologies, the interest in learning the English language has grown. Consequently, learning English has been made compulsory from primary school onwards in many countries. Despite the substantial number of English teachers, many universities and schools around the world are still lacking English teaching staff. This lack of teachers is the consequence of the assumption that native English teachers can do their craft better than non-natives ones since the former are believed to have an excellent command of the language and an excellent pronunciation, and they can deal with all-level proficiency students. An English language teacher who has acquired an ELT certificate as a result of maybe three months of formal studies (or an average of 100 training hours) is sometimes, or, should I say is always given preference over the non-native English teacher who has studied the language for several years in formal academic settings, gained a master degree or even a doctoral degree in the field.

For instance, if one were to look for a job in Jordan for example, there would be many small private businesses where a native English-speaking teacher could find a job because he has either a British or an American accent. Students want to learn with native speakers because they want to learn the accent. This makes it easier for native speakers to get a job even if they do not have a degree, or even a certification in teaching English [12].

This preference of the native teachers is related to the postulation stipulating that non-native English teachers have lower vocabulary level and less command of the metaphoric or idiomatic language, and their pronunciation is influenced or affected to a certain extent by their mother tongue. Because of the aforementioned facts, the NNETs are often being discriminated against. As Jeremy Harmer says, for many years an opposition has been created between native-speaking English teachers and non-native speaking English teachers. And for much of that time, many non-native speaking teachers have felt a sense of injustice and

sometimes even inferiority at what they perceive as the assumed superiority of the native teachers [5, p.118]. Alan Davies considers that the everyday use of the term *native speaker* can cause offence. At university departments where applied linguistics are taught, linguists often use in their daily discussions the terms *native speaker* and *non-native speaker*. Such use does not tend to be exact; it is rather an appeal to common sense to use a difficult and uncertain concept which is at the same time a useful piece of shorthand. Appeals of the following kind are frequently made in academic settings in the UK:

We need 10 native speakers for a test on Friday
I am looking for three non-native speakers to help with a questionnaire
What do the native speakers think about this (piece of discourse, stylistics exercise and so on).
I've posted a job vacancy for native-speaking teacher on the notice-board.

What is clear is that such shorthand requests cause a good deal of offence, states Davies Alan [3, p. 7]. This injustice arises from the fact that the NNETs are often underestimated by students and even by their colleagues who are native English speakers. While, the NETs are assumed to use English fluently and accurately in the classrooms, with an unlimited flexibility when teaching, the NNETs are assumed to be less flexible, less accurate and less fluent, relying mostly on textbooks. English language teachers have a common objective, namely teaching the English language to the speakers of other languages. As we often come across numerous job advertisements on different job-related websites, or university academic settings as I have mentioned earlier in this paper, seeking native English teachers, people in general, and non-native English teachers in particular, wonder: *Does the native teacher make the student a better learner? Is the student more motivated to learn the language when his/her teacher is a native speaker of the language? How much is a teacher supposed to speak in the classroom? How much is a student supposed to listen to the fluency, accuracy, and the metaphorical language of the native - speaking teacher? Is it possible for non-native teachers to be good English communicators, using fluent, accurate and metaphorical English? Is it possible for the non-native English teachers to be unlimited in flexibility while teaching the language? Is it possible for English teachers to work together as a team without any grade of superiority regardless of their mother tongue? Is the native English teacher better than the non-native English teacher?*

Defining the terms "native speaker" and "non-native speaker"

According to Davis (2003), many scholars have attempted over many years to provide workable and rational distinction between a *native speaker* and a *non-native speaker* and many others have argued that it is impossible to provide workable and rational distinctions between these two terms [cited in 7, p. 8]. While Swales (1993) argues that it no longer makes any sense to differentiate between native and non-native speakers, Madgyes (1994, p. 27) insists that the native English speaker teacher and the non-native English speaker teacher are two different species" [cited in 7, p. 8]. However, up till now, there is currently no clear consensus on the definition of a native speaker, Sunyoung Park states. In Shin's opinion (2008), the native/non-native division is one of the most difficult and elusive concepts to define in language teaching [cited in 9, p. 9]. The concept of *native speaker* is a central issue

in SLA research and language teaching, states Vivian Cook [2, p. 171]. The author says that one of the first uses of the term is by Leonard Bloomfield (1933, p. 43): “the first language a human being learns to speak is his native language; he’s a native speaker of this language” [cited in 2, p. 171]. According to Alan Davies the native speakers of a language are the models we appeal to for the “truth” about the language; they know what language is, and what the language isn’t. They are the stakeholders of the language; they control its maintenance and shape its direction [3, p. 10.] In Nike K. Pokorn’ opinion, the concept of “native speaker” has like the term “mother tongue”, more than one meaning. The author provides the following definitions:

1. A native speaker of L1 is someone who has native-like intuitions by virtue of nativity;
2. A native speaker is someone who acquired L1 during childhood in an L1 speaking family or environment;
3. A native speaker is someone who uses the language creatively;
4. A native speaker is someone who has the capacity to produce fluent, spontaneous discourse in English and intuitively distinguishes between correct and incorrect forms of English [11, p. 6-8];

Unfortunately, the last two definitions are not usually taken into account as the employee is mostly interested in the candidate’s nationality.

Because of the difficulties of arriving at a clear definition of the term “native speaker”, recently there has been a growing challenge to the relevance and usefulness of the term [8, p. 30]. Ramton (1990:98-9) advocates replacing the term with the concept of “expertise”. In his view this concept has the following advantages:

1. Although they often do, experts do not have to feel close to what they know about. Expertise is different from identification.
2. Expertise is learned not fixed or innate.
3. Expertise is relative One person’s expert is another person’s fool.
4. Expertise is partial. People can be expert in several fields, but they are never omniscient.
5. To achieve expertise, one goes through process of certification, in which one is judged by other people. Their standards of assessment can be reviewed and disputed [cited in 8, p. 30].

Although there is a wide agreement that the terms *native* and *non-native* speaker are impossible to define (Kaplan, 1999) and that they “obviously and pointlessly dichotomise the world neatly into “us” and “them” (Kaplan, 1999), the reality is that “teachers who are perceived as speaking a language other than English as their mother tongue - regardless of their actual proficiency with English - are typically labelled as “non-native English speakers” [6, p. 72].

In the present paper, the term *native English teachers* targets all English teachers whose mother tongue is English as well as all English teachers who acquired the English language during childhood as a result of being brought up in an English speaking country. I use the term *non-native English teachers* to refer to all English teachers whose mother tongue is other than English but who have studied the language in a formal academic environment, thus being qualified to teach English as a second or foreign language.

Being a Native - Speaking English Teacher.

For many decades the English language - teaching profession has assumed that native English - speaking teachers, by virtue of their superior model of oral production, comprised the ideal English language teacher. [4, p. 137]. This assumption is related to the belief that the "native speaker" represents, in Adrian Hollyday's words (2006, p. 286), the "Western culture" from which springs the ideal of the English language and English language teaching methodology [cited in 5, p. 119]. I definitely agree with Harmer Jeremy who says that this belief is still alive and well in some quarters, not least in the minds of some students, who seem to think that being taught by someone who has English as a mother tongue will somehow help them learn better [5, p. 119]. Kachru (2005), McKay (2002) brings into light the fact that English is not frequently learned as a tool for understanding and teaching American or British cultural values. Instead, English has become a tool for international communication in transportation, commerce, banking, tourism, technology, diplomacy, and scientific research [4, p. 136]. Thus, taking into account this point of view with regard to the motives of learning the English language, I totally disagree with the idea that the NETs are better teachers as they represent the so called "Western culture" from which springs the ideal of the English language and English language teaching methodology. The practical importance of the term "native speaker" is emphasized by Paikeday (1985), who points to the employment discrimination against those who lack the 'ideal' native-speaker attributes: native speakership should not be used as a criterion for excluding certain categories of people from language teaching, dictionary editing, and similar functions" [cited in 3, p. 6].

Being a native speaker does not automatically make you a good teacher, Vivian Cook says. In many instances, continues the author, the expat native speaker is less trained than the local non-native teacher, or has been trained in an educational system with different values and goals; they are not necessarily aware of the properties of their own language and are highly unlikely to talk about its grammar coherently [2, p. 187]. Peter Medgyes (1992) highlights the drawbacks of native speakers, who:

- are not models of L2 users;
- cannot talk about l2 learning strategies from their own experience;
- are often not explicitly aware of the features of the language as much as non-native speakers are;
- cannot anticipate learning problems;
- cannot emphasize with their students learning experience;
- are not able to exploit the learners' first language in the classroom [cited in 2, p. 187].

Why are then native speakers so desirable? asks Vivian Cook [2. p. 186]. One justification often put forward is that the students themselves demand native speakers (as it has been mentioned at the beginning of the present paper). In a survey Vivian Cook conducted in several countries, children in England gave native speakers teachers a 55 per cent preference, in Belgium 33 per cent; 60 per cent of adults in England preferred natives, and in Taiwan 51 per cent. The most obvious reason for preferring native speakers is the model of language that natives can present. They can model the language their students are aiming at and can provide an instant authoritative answer to any language question [2, p. 186].

Being a non-native English teacher

According to Kachru (2005), McKay (2002), English is being used as a tool for interaction among non-native speakers. Well over one-half of the one billion of the English speakers of the world learn English as a second (or foreign language). Most English language teachers across the globe (about 80%) are non-native English speakers, which means that the norm is not monolingualism, but bilingualism [cited in 4, p. 136]. Nevertheless, the non-native English teachers feel a grade of inferiority when they face the native speakers [5, p. 119, 4, p. 137]. Inferiority inevitably leads to insecurity and to lack of self-confidence. This inferiority is even more acutely felt when these teachers work in an English speaking country. A great number of students choose to do an English course in an English speaking country. Due to the lack of native English teachers, the non-native teachers are hired in many language centres and even universities. Most of the time students experience a grade of disappointment when they realize that their English teacher is a non-native speaker of English. As a result the non-native teachers experience a strong sense of inferiority.

Le Ha Phan, referring to Vietnamese English teachers, points out the disadvantages of the non-native teacher. The author considers that the non-native teachers of English are not able to speak English as fluently as native speakers and of course they can't master the language as the native speakers. This thus causes difficulties in teaching, for example, intonation, rhythm, listening and even pronunciation [10, p. 138]. Besides, there are other factors that lead non-native English teachers to experience a good deal of insecurity in their own abilities [8, p. 43]. Tang (1997), for example, reports on a survey she conducted of a teacher retraining course in Hong Kong, in which she asked local teachers about their perceptions of the proficiency of native – and –non-native speaking teachers of English. A very high percentage of the teachers believed that the native English-speaking teachers were superior to non-native English speaking teachers in speaking (100 per cent), pronunciation (92 per cent), listening (87 per cent), vocabulary (79 per cent), and reading (72 per cent) [cited in 8, p. 43]. At first sight, these percentages prove the superiority of the NETs over the NNETs, and the inferiority of the NNET to the NETs; the latter not realizing that, as, Jeremy Harmer points out, they have many advantages that their “native” colleagues do not [5, p. 119], [4, p. 137]. In the first place, they have had the same experience of learning English as their students are now having and this gives them an instant (even if only subconscious) understanding of what their students are going through [5, p. 119]. Moreover, H. Douglas Brown, states that not only are multiple varieties of English now considered legitimate and acceptable, but also teachers who have actually gone through the process of learning English possess distinct advantages over native speakers [4, p. 137]. In order to show the relative advantages NNETs might have in teaching English, Ellis (2002) conducted a study of three NNETs who teach English in Australia. The data revealed four ways in which the experience of learning English can be conceptualized and drawn on by the teachers : (1) the affective aspects of being a learner allow the teachers to empathize with their students; (2) the experience of different teaching styles and their own learning strategies can be effectively incorporated into their teaching practice; (3) through the conscious process of learning English, they understand the language from the non-native speaker's point of view and explain its patterns to their students clearly; and (4) they can relate their formal training in TESOL to their own experience in learning English [cited in 9, p. 2]. Another advantage of non-native

(or bilingual) teachers is presented by Sandra Lee McKay, who considers that, since non-native speakers have gone through the process of acquiring English as a second language themselves, they often have a highly developed awareness of the structure of the language; in addition, they can anticipate the problems their students may have in acquiring it [8, p. 45]. As Seidhofer (1999) notes that this ability enables bilingual teachers to “get into the skin of the foreigner learner” [cited in 8, p. 243]. Ultimately, being able to do this provides bilingual teachers with a keen sense of what their students need to know. But perhaps the greatest strength of bilingual English teachers, points out the author, is that they provide their students with a model of a good language learner that is relevant to their own social and cultural experiences, a model that no language teachers from another culture can ever provide [8, p. 45]

Therefore, the non-native speaker, who has mastered the English language, who is an excellent communicator and an excellent methodologist, who can deal with the various English levels and students’ needs, who is capable of raising students awareness and motivation by representing himself/herself a real model of being able to reach the proficiency level in speaking a foreign language, is definitely not a worse teacher than his or her native speaker colleague. Conversely, as H. Douglas Brown specifies, native English teacher are clearly and unequivocally not better teachers than NNETs by virtue of their native language background; the most important qualification for a teaching position is training and experience in teaching English [4, p. 138]. The same point of view is shared by Sunyoung Park, who believes that NNETs are not necessarily less qualified teachers than NETs. Through their own successful learning experiences, NNETs can give their students inspiration which might have tremendous influence on the student's future and success. Students often take their teachers as role models and try to emulate their teachers' behaviour [9, p. 1].

Who is the ideal teacher who can cope with the challenging task of teaching the English language?

In order to crystallize the issue under discussion, it is necessary to answer the following questions:

1. *Does the native teacher make the student a better learner?*

No, he doesn't. The native speaker doesn't make the student a better learner. According to Rubin and Thompson, what defines good learners are students who can find their own way (without always having to be guided by their teachers through learning tasks), who are creative, who make intelligent guesses, who make their own opportunities for practice, who make error work for them not against them, and who use contextual clues. It depends on their willingness to learn the language [cited in 5, p. 86]. Moreover, successful mastery of the language will be to a large extent due to a learner's own personal “investment” of time, effort, and attention to the second language in form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language [4, p. 69]. Thus, it is definitely not the teacher's mother tongue that defines a good learner.

2. *Is the student more motivated to learn the language when his/her teacher is a native speaker of the language?*

No, they aren't. At its most basic level, motivation is some kind of an internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something. It is influenced by our

goal, the society we live in, the people around us and curiosity [5, p. 98]. Undoubtedly, the teacher has its role in raising students' motivation. And I believe that the non-native English teachers, who are excellent communicators, can raise students' awareness and motivation by the simple fact that they themselves represent a real model of being able to reach the proficiency level in speaking a foreign language.

3. *How much is a teacher supposed to speak in the classroom? How much is a student supposed to listen to the fluency, accuracy, and the metaphorical language of the native-speaking teacher?*

The aim of learning a new language is mostly for communication purpose. Many teachers complain that their students are quiet. Claudia Pesce says that there are several reasons why students are quiet, and one them is the teacher him/herself. The more the teacher speaks, the less students speak [13]. Nowadays, the students can listen to different accents or should I say different Englishes on TV, watching news programmes for formal English, movies for formal and informal English, and lots of reality shows, current affairs programmes etc., in order to listen to real English. Moreover, most of the English course books are accompanied by invaluable audio CDs and video DVDs that use real world conversations focusing on stress, intonation and other features.

4. *Is it possible for non-native English teachers to be good English communicators using fluent, accurate and metaphorical English?*

Yes, it is. It depends on their willingness to achieve the fluency and accuracy in English.

5. *Is it possible for the non-native English teachers to be unlimited in flexibility while teaching the language?*

Yes, it is. It all depends on their pedagogical skills, their initial formation and the ongoing development which aims at promoting teachers' professional growth; it strengthens the teacher's competencies by gaining knowledge and pedagogical skills; it improves the teacher's quality as well as the student's learning performance.

6. *Is it possible for English teachers to work together as a team without any grade of superiority regardless of what their mother tongue is?*

Yes, it is. It is very important to keep in mind the fact that English teachers (native and non-native teachers) make up a team compensating for each other's shortcomings as they have the same amazing task, that of teaching others how to speak a foreign language, thus, opening a new door to many people to a new world, to a world of knowledge, success, a world which offers much more opportunities for professional growth and personal achievement.

7. *Is the native English teacher better than the non-native English teacher?* Certainly not, as it is not the teachers' mother tongue that defines the teacher's pedagogical skills. As Sandra Lee McKay states, certainly language is elated to proficiency but there is no causal relationship between the two. An individual could conceivably use English in childhood and not attain a high level off proficiency in the language even when it is the dominant language at home [8, p. 29].

8. *Who is the ideal English teacher?* Although there are lots of advanced skills teachers around the world, none of them can be considered the ideal teacher; instead many of them can be considered excellent teachers. The excellent teachers are those who have knowledge, skills, and competences plus personality, self-confidence, intelligence, open-

mindedness, charisma, and a sense of humour. The excellent teachers are those who carry about their students, have a good communicative tolerance, and create classroom downplaying performance outcomes.

Conclusion

As we move into a new paradigm in which the concepts of native and non-native speaker become less relevant, says H. Douglas Brown, it is perhaps more appropriate to think in terms of proficiency level of a user of a language [4, p. 137]. Speaking is one of four skills and may not deserve in all contexts to be elevated to the sole criterion for proficiency. So, with Murray (2006), Park (2006), Kachru (2005), Kamhi - Stein (2004), McKay (2002) and others, we see that the profession is better served by considering a person's communicative proficiency across the four skills, states the author. He considers that the teachers of English, regardless of their own variety English, can then be judged accordingly, and in turn, their pedagogical training and experience can occupy focal attention [4, p. 137].

Regardless of the fact that a teacher is or is not a native speaker of English, he/she must be qualified and should know his/her craft well. He/she should have the aptitude to motivate students, raise their awareness of how language works, use the right techniques and procedures that best fit the students' needs, provide adequate feedback and have unlimited flexibility when teaching the language. They ought to overpass this inferiority with regard to being a non-native English teacher. In the first place, they have to rise in self-esteem, self-confidence, and overcome anxiety when in the classroom. All this can be achieved by continuing the professional development. At the end of the day, the native English teachers and the non-native English teachers alike, all are in the same circle and what counts most is not where they come from, but their pedagogical skills, their power to transmit the knowledge to the students and their love for this amazing job. The native English teachers and the non-native English teachers alike, have their shortcomings, but they can learn from each other, they can cooperate in order to achieve their common goal: to make the teaching/learning/evaluation process of the English language effective and enjoyable.

According to Jeremy Harmer, teachers sometimes say they are like actors because they feel as if they are always on stage. Others talk of themselves as orchestral conductors because they direct conversation and set the pace and tone. Yet others feel like gardeners because they plant the seeds and then watch them grow [5, p. 107]. To my way of thinking, as English teachers we are actors, orchestral conductors and gardeners at the same time as we are always on stage conducting our orchestra and waiting to reap our harvest at the end of the year. How well we perform on stage, how well our orchestra plays and the harvest we reap at the end of the year, depends not on whether we are native speakers of English or not, but to a large extent on what kind of actors we are, how well we know to conduct the orchestra and what kind of seeds we plant day by day.

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DIMENSIONS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN ROMANIAN PRE-SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE. SOME VIEWPOINTS INTO PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract: The theoretical fundamentals of the adult education in Romania are the result of a progressive process, of a set of ideas and concepts, structured on a time-basis. The tradition is a source of knowledge providing the grounds for the validation of the new acquirements, for development, innovation, while generating contradictions and antinomies through decontextualization. The work is based on the qualitative research, the data selection method being the historical research, using the documentary analysis technique. We shall use specific organization and classification ways for the data acquired from the study of the Romanian pre-scientific literature. The educational research methodology highlights three types of historical research: research of the institutions, schools of educational thinking and of personalities; research of educational ideas; re-interpretation of historical data, insertion in distinct assemblies, generalization. The study shall take the form of a monograph of the pre-scientific literature that set down the grounds of adult education in Romania.

Keywords: adult education in Romania, pre-scientific literature.

Cunoaștere populară și cunoaștere cultă în literatura educațională din România

Încă de la primele etape ale formării limbii române până la primele scrieri literare, creațiile populare românești au constituit modalitatea fundamentală de conceptualizare artistică. Influența folclorului literar continuă să persiste în paralel cu evoluția literaturii culte, chiar mai mult, unele creații au cunoscut o dezvoltare deplină abia după apariția literaturii scrise: marile realizări ale eposului folcloric¹ se raportează la literatura secolelor al XVI-lea – al XIX-lea. Coordonată esențială a literaturii educaționale, folclorul românesc a dezvoltat pe parcursul timpului teme, idei, conceptualizări, de la cronicari la clasici și romantici, tradiționaliști sau moderniști, cu rol în dezvoltarea epistemică a educației adulților. În evoluția conceptului de *folclor*, termen propus de William Thoms, în 1846, se constată adoptarea unei terminologii eterogene, parte a semanticii “culturii populare”. Vom utiliza în continuare sintagma *elemente de educație a adulților* pentru a defini aspectele empirice, manifestările incipiente având ca finalitate educația adulților². Stabilind importanța literaturii populare românești în sfera educației, Ștefan Bârsănescu (1937) apreciază că *opinia populară*, caracterizată printr-o mare asprime morală și națională, constituie o “forță vigilentă care previne și sancționează”³. Forme incipiente ale culturii populare românești sunt identificate de Nicolae Cartoian (1941), teoretician al literaturii române vechi, în manuscrisele călugărilor

¹ O analiză sistematică a *perspectivelor și modalităților de valorificare didactică a eposului folcloric* este realizată de Corneliu Goidu, 2008, în teza de doctorat cu același titlu, sub coordonarea științifică a lui Ioan Cerghit.

² Este vorba despre literatura secolelor XV – XVIII, începând cu activitatea școlilor mănăstirești care pregăteau deopotrivă tineri și adulți, fără a identifica în literatura analizată modalități distincte de conceptualizare a conținuturilor pentru cele două categorii; activitatea academiilor și a colegiilor domnești, în cadrul cărora sunt consemnate atât acțiuni de pregătire a tinerilor, cât și demersuri de instruire a corpului profesoral, însă informațiile sunt lacunare și nu consemnează manifestări instituționale distincte.

³ Ștefan Bârsănescu (1937, 2003), *Politica culturii în România. Studiu de pedagogie*, Ediția a doua, Editura Polirom, Iași, Prefață de Cramen Crețu, Cuvânt înainte de George Văideanu, p. 28.

copiști instruiți în școlile mănăstirești, la începutul secolului al XV-lea. Cartoian sistematizează astfel aceste contribuții: „în afară de textele Sfintelor Scripturi, atât de prețioase într-o vreme în care tipografia nu-și făcuse apariția la noi și în afară de cărțile necesare serviciului divin, s-au mai copiat în mănăstirile noastre *literatura populară dogmatică și ascetică*, care contribuia la întărirea credinței, *literatura apocrifă*, care satisfăcea curiozitățile călugărilor pentru atâtea chestiuni pe care Biblia le lăsa în întuneric, precum și o parte din *literatura distractivă a slavilor sud-dunăreni*”⁴.

O serie de conceptualizări au fost avansate de-a lungul timpului pentru a explica stadiile incipiente ale cunoașterii științifice: *cunoaștere preparadigmatică - noțiune caracteristică științelor exacte* (Kuhn, 1976), *cunoașterea naivă, ordinară* - pentru definirea contextului social (Moscovici, 1984) sau *pedagogia simțului comun* - care particularizează contextul educațional (Bârsănescu, 1941). În concepția lui Thomas Kuhn (1976), dinamica oricărei discipline științifice are la bază două etape distincte: *cercetarea bazată pe paradigmă*, o activitate cumulativă de rezolvare a problemelor, care lasă neatins fundamentale disciplinei (teoriile, faptele, valorile științifice, metodele și tehnicile fundamentale de cercetare); *revoluția științifică, prefacerea fundamentelor*, reprezintă o întrerupere a continuității, trecerea de la o formă de practică științifică la alta, diferită din punct de vedere calitativ⁵. Kuhn evidențiază importanța existenței unor *stadii timpurii, preparadigmatice* ale dezvoltării unei științe, care constituie criterii în *evoluția domeniului spre etapa de maturitate*. Serge Moscovici (1984) avansează necesitatea decriptării și înțelegerii unui *nou tip de cunoaștere* în procesul considerării științifice a unui domeniu: *cunoașterea naivă*. Ipostaziind aspecte ale *cunoașterii ordinare* și ale *cunoașterii logice*, din perspectiva contextului social, Moscovici consideră că opoziția între *gândirea standard* și *gândirea naivă* este mai puțin de ordin logic și mai mult de ordin social⁶. În același registru de analiză se încadrează afirmația lui Gaston Bachelard (1938) care, raportându-se la modalitatea de construcție a cunoașterii, apreciază că orice știință nu se definește doar în raport cu normele standard de științificitate, acceptate ca atare de comunitatea academică, ci *se raportează la propria preștiință pe care o neagă, prin diferențieri, detașări și controverse*.

În România, teoreticieni ai fenomenului educațional realizează delimitări între *cunoașterea sistematică și cunoașterea specifică simțului comun*. În acest registru de analiză, se înscriu contribuțiile lui Ștefan Bârsănescu (1941), Cezar Bîrzea (1998), Elena Joița (2009), care consideră elementele distinctive ale *cunoașterii preparadigmatice* (metafora, mitul, simțul comun), *obstacole epistemologice* care condiționează evoluția unei discipline către statutul de știință. Ștefan Bârsănescu (1941) include în *pedagogia românească preștiințifică*⁷ ansamblul izvoarelor identificate până în secolul al XVIII-lea. Cezar Bîrzea (1998) realizează o analiză sistematică a relevanței *cunoașterii preparadigmatice* în sistemul științelor

⁴ Nicolae Cartoian (1940), *Istoria literaturii române vechi*, Vol. I, *Dela origini până la epoca lui Matei Basarab și Vasile Lupu*, Fundația pentru Literatură și Artă „Regele Carol II”, București, p. 28-29.

⁵ Thomas Kuhn (1976), *Structura revoluțiilor științifice*, Editura Științifică și Enciclopedică, București, p.15.

⁶ *L'opposition entre la pensée standard et celle qui ne l'est pas, entre la pensée „naïve” de l'homme de la rue est moins de l'ordre logique ou l'organique que l'ordre social, en définitive* (t.n.); Moscovici, S., (1984), *Psychologie sociale*, PUF, Paris (3^{ème} édition).

⁷ Ștefan Bârsănescu (1941) include în *pedagogia românească preștiințifică* primele manifestări educaționale instituționale - școlile mănăstirești - pedagogia românească scrisă, pedagogia umanistă și pedagogia secolului al XVIII-lea în *Istoria pedagogiei românești*, Societatea Română de Filosofie, București, pp. 15-51.

educației, considerând *mitul, metafora, opinia (simțul comun), reflecțiile personale, elemente constitutive ale cunoașterii preștiințifice*. Bîrzea pledează pentru conștientizarea și decelarea *obstacolelor epistemologice* care condiționează demersul de fundamentare a educației pe baze științifice. Apreciind că științele educației, debarasate de „reziduurile preștiințifice” și „purificate epistemologic”, oferă cele mai eficiente modalități de cunoaștere a individualității și invocând *teoria continuismului*, conform căreia *preștiința evoluează spre știință*, Bîrzea consideră cunoașterea paradigmatică rezultatul unei evoluții permanente, prin „conversiune naturală și progresivă a cunoștințelor preștiințifice”⁸. Bîrzea apreciază că în primele sale manifestări sociale, gândirea educațională era constituită din *sfaturi practice, cugetări personale, povestiri, parabole și maxime moralizatoare, conținuturi care îi conferă caracter difuz, lipsit de științificitate și rigoare*. Trecerea de la „mythos” la „logos” ia forma evoluției de la „simbol la semn”. Primul este concret și sintetic, comportă imagini și se realizează prin apel la afect. Celălalt este abstract, analitic și obiectiv, se exprimă prin concepte și standarde numerice.

La polul opus, *teza discontinuistă* enunțată de către Gaston Bachelard (1938) avansează teoria conform căreia cunoașterea științifică nu este obligată să asimileze cunoașterea ordinară, ci, prin rupturi epistemologice, știința se definește în opoziție cu propria istorie și preistorie, iar decizerea unei științe față de trecutul său preștiințific se face prin „filosofia lui nu”⁹. Hameline (1976) apreciază că înainte de a deveni opera oamenilor cultivați sau a savanților, pedagogia face obiectul *ideilor comune* pe care o epocă sau un grup le au asupra educației. Astfel, fondul de proverbe și aforisme din care se alimentează orice cultură reprezintă o importantă rezervă de idei pentru educație.

Elena Joița (2009) analizează schimbările de paradigmă în plan educativ, valorificând teoriile unuia dintre cei mai influenți filosofi ai științei, Thomas Kuhn. Considerând educația „domeniul de studiu al pedagogiei”¹⁰, autoarea pledează atât pentru aplicarea și verificarea paradigmelor generale, cât mai ales pentru abordarea paradigmelor derivate, de ordin metodologic și acțional. Elena Joița distinge trei etape în dezvoltarea pedagogiei ca știință „normală și matură”: *etapa preparadigmatică (preștiințifică)*, *etapa paradigmatică (a științei normale)*, *etapa postparadigmatică*. Joița plasează nivelul actual al dezvoltării pedagogiei în *faza de criză*, la începutul tranziției către redefinirea unei faze de normalitate, prin reformulări ale paradigmei și prin obținerea consensului comunității¹¹.

Elemente de educație a adulților în literatura populară românească

Literatura populară românească a fost analizată de-a lungul timpului din perspective diverse, derivate cel mai adesea din preocupările aplicative ale unor teoreticieni sau școli de gândire: din *perspectivă filologică*, în scopul evidențierii complexității epistemice și lingvistice a culturii populare; din *perspectivă sociologică*, ca modalitate de deciptare contextualizată a particularităților distinctive pentru anumite categorii sociale; din *perspectivă pedagogică*, în scopul stabilirii reperelor cu valoare educativă.

⁸ *Ibidem*, p. 32.

⁹ *Apud* Cezar Bîrzea, *Op. Cit.*, p. 33.

¹⁰ Elena Joița (2009), *Știința educației prin paradigme. Pedagogia „văzută prin alți ochi”*, Institutul European, Iași, p. 9.

¹¹ Elena Joița (2009), *Op. cit.*, p. 58.

Nicolae Cartoian (1941) încadrează în seria primelor opere populare românești, *literatura apocrifă din secolul al XVI-lea, dar și primele texte de literatură didactică din secolul al XVI-lea*. Concretizată în legende populare religioase¹², literatura apocrifă era accesibilă unui număr restrâns de persoane, nefiind recunoscută de autoritățile bisericești. Trecerea de la literatura *apocrifă* la cea *didactică* a fost ușor de realizat, apreciază Cartoian (1941), deoarece “literatura didactică de la începutul culturii noastre era alcătuită din texte în care maximele, elementele rudimentare de științe naturale precum și cele narative, legende și istorioare, au fost subordonate unor idei morale și religioase”¹³. În secolul al XVII-lea, *literatura didactică* era reprezentată prin două texte: *Fisiologul*¹⁴, având origini în Egipt, și *Fiore di virtù*, provenind din literatura Italiei medieval. În *Fisiologul*, prin redare metaforică, se realizează exprimarea simbolică a normelor educației de ordin moral și religios. La distanță de un secol, Dimitrie Cantemir valorifică, în *Istoria ieroglifică*, elemente din simbolistica *Fisiologului*. *Fiore di virtù*, text alcătuit din 34 de capitole, prezintă virtuți și vicii, dispuse simetric, asemeni ideii din *Fisiologul*, modalitate distinctă de accesibilizare a cunoașterii în textele medievale¹⁵.

În *Octoih mic* (1786), apărut la Iași, sunt identificate elemente de educație permanentă, cu rol în orientarea științei de carte. Redăm câteva din pildele *Octoihului*, din considerente ce țin de valoarea educativă a textului, dar și din rațiuni de estetică a creației populare: “Învățătura la un tânăr este cunună și înțelepciunea un enugolpiu de aur. Cât este învățătura de folositoare la cel ce o are, de vreme ce este fără de preț, că nimeni nu o poate vinde pe bani. Două feluri de oameni nu se îndestulează niciodată: cei ce încearcă învățătura, cei ce strâng avuția.”¹⁶

Problematica influenței folclorului în cultura românească este analizată de Lucian Blaga (1942), în *Trilogia culturii*, din dublă perspectivă: cea a stabilirii identității culturale și cea a *explicitării relației local – național și universal*. Propunând un simbolism spațial distinct pentru a conferi semnificații legăturii stabilită între *cultură* și *spațiu*, - europeanul, occidentalul, trăiește în sentimentul infinitului, câtă vreme orientalul, asiaticul, trăiește, în genere, în sentimentul peșterii sau al spațiului boltă¹⁷-. Blaga dezvoltă concepția potrivit căreia *spațiul* furnizează elemente de identitate și cunoaștere a *culturii* unui popor.

Stanciu Stoian și Petre Alexandru au o contribuție importantă în planul *evidențierii importanței pedagogiei populare în dezvoltarea gândirii pedagogice românești* în studiul *Pedagogie și folclor. Gândirea pedagogică a poporului, reflectată cu deosebire în proverbe și zicători*, apărut în 1978. Apreciind că în folclor pot fi identificate două aspecte educaționale cu posibilitatea valorificării, *epistemic* (concepția educațională folclorică) și *axiologic*

¹² Exemple de literatura apocrifă sunt textele apocrife din Codex Sturdzanus (*Apocalipsul Apostolului Pavel*) precum și *Legenda hagiografică a Sfintei Vineri*, ambele publicate de B. P. Hașdeu, în *Cuvinte den bătrâni*.

¹³ Nicolae Cartoian, *Op. cit.*, p. 71.

¹⁴ Manuscrisul cel mai vechi al *Fisiologului* este copiat în 1693, la Brașov, de Costea Dascălul de la Biserica Șcheilor și a fost publicat în facsimile și transcriere latină, într-o publicație cu titlul *Cercări literare I*, București, 1934, p. 83-101.

¹⁵ Delimitarea specificului literaturii românești din secolele XV - VII în articolul publicat de Mariana Momanu și Magda-Elena Samoilă (2010), „*Elements of Continuous and Adult Education in the Romanian Literature and Institutions of the 15th-17th Centuries*”, în *Analele Stiințifice ale Universității „Alexandru Ioan Cuza” din Iași. Seria Științe ale Educației (XV/2011)*, Editura Universității „Alexandru Ioan Cuza”, Iași.

¹⁶ Facsimile în Bianu și Hodoș (1910), p. 314-315.

¹⁷ Lucian Blaga (1942), *Trilogia culturii*, s.e., București, p. 43.

(valențele educative ale folclorului)¹⁸, Stoian delimitează patru etape cu semnificație în dezvoltarea literaturii populare în spațiul românesc: *prima perioadă, romantică*, încadrată în intervalul 1848–1859, are drept notă predominantă *caracterul estetic* al abordărilor folclorice; cea de a doua, *etno-folcloristică, enciclopedică*, este caracterizată prin abandonarea caracterului estetic în favoarea celui enciclopedic; a treia etapă corespunde primelor patru decenii ale secolului al XX-lea, fiind perioada de *constituire a folclorului ca știință de sine stătătoare*, în timp ce ultima etapă, cea contemporană, este caracterizată prin *aparitia unui folclor nou*, fundamentat pe noile dimensiuni ale vieții sociale și spirituale¹⁹. Stoian stabilește legături între *pedagogia folclorică și tradiție*. Apreciind că *folclorul este o ramură a tradiției populare, dar și concretizarea acesteia*, Stoian definește folclorul drept „totalitatea producțiilor artistice populare, nu știința acestora”²⁰. Stoian distinge un ansamblu de trăsături care individualizează folclorul în raport cu alte dimensiuni ale literaturii: *oralitatea* (în secolul al XIX-lea, perioadă în care debutează campaniile de alfabetizare a maselor, devin evidente barierele între caracterul *popular* și cel *cult* al literaturii); *strânsa legătură cu aspectele vieții sociale*; *originea* (individuală sau colectivă); *caracterul enciclopedic*; *caracterul istoric*; *permanența*.

Concepția *permanenței tradiției și a folclorului* o regăsim la Dumitru Stăniloae (1940) care, în articolul *Creștinism și naționalism*, apreciază că (...) “istoria unei tradiții nu e o schimbare continuă și treptată a întregului; rămâne ceva și anume ceea ce-i mai esențial, care nu se schimbă în cursul istoriei unei comunități identice cu sine însăși: puterea ei de *rezistență față de curgerea vremii*”²¹.

Problematica înțelegerii literaturii populare, din perspectiva cunoașterii și valorizării diversității culturale este abordată și la nivelul unor structuri externe, UNESCO fiind forul care propune cunoașterea *culturii populare* ca parte a *educației pentru interculturalitate*. În 1994, este inițiat proiectul *Participarea tinerilor la păstrarea și dezvoltarea Patrimoniului Planetei*, în 1995, se desfășoară primul *Forum al Tineretului pentru Patrimoniul Planetei*, iar 2008 este considerat *Anul european al dialogului intercultural*.

Concluzii

Apreciem semnificativă sintetizarea abordărilor de acest tip în delimitarea etapelor de evoluție a educației adulților spre starea de „maturitate științifică”, din considerente de ordin epistemic. Pe de o parte, conținutul teoretic enunțat contribuie la încadrarea elementelor de educație a adulților identificate în cultura populară românească într-un parcurs evolutiv firesc, fundament pentru numeroase și variate conceptualizări contemporane din domeniu, pe de altă parte, conștientizarea și semnificarea contextualizată a elementelor de educație a adulților identificate în textele folclorice reprezintă reper în procesul de individualizare și stabilire a identității disciplinare a domeniului.

¹⁸ Stanciu Stoian și Petre Alexandru (1978), *Pedagogie și folclor. Gândirea pedagogică a poporului, reflectată cu deosebire în proverbe și zicători*, Editura Didactică și Pedagogică, București, p. 7.

¹⁹ *Idem*, p. 37.

²⁰ *Idem*, p. 16.

²¹ Dumitru Stăniloae (1940), “Creștinism și naționalism” în *Telegraful român*, anul LXXXVIII, nr. 40, p. 1.

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BE(LONG)ING AND BECOMING: IMPACTS OF GLOBALIZATION ON CULTURAL IDENTITY

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Abstract: The purpose of this article is to identify and analyse some effects of migration, highly intensified by the process of globalization, at the individual level. The focus is on the ability of individuals to establish and relate to their own identity, their adaptation to a new cultural environment, and the measure in which they are influenced by the process of acculturation. Theoretical aspects are accompanied by a case study on some adaptation examples of Romanian residents in the area of Bordeaux, France.

Keywords: culture, acculturation, national identity, adaptation, globalization

The starting point of this paper is discussing the concept of globalization. Hence, it is interesting to see how Robert O. Keohane and Joseph S. Nye Jr., recognized as founders of the neoliberal school of thought, refer to this concept. Although the paper *Governance in a Globalizing World* is more focused on political than cultural aspects, it is a useful tool in the analysis of the current process of globalization. The two authors consider that a distinction should be made between *thin and thick globalization*. They support their arguments by giving the example of the Silk Road, which represented an economic and cultural connection between Europe and Asia, as falling under the category of thin globalization. This road was used by a relatively small number of merchants, because of the appearance of new maritime routes between the two continents, and the goods being commercialized had a relatively low impact. On the other hand, the intense current operations on the global financial markets have an impact that qualifies them as a good example of thick globalization. As a result, people who refer to the current process of globalization as a new one, should keep in mind that this affirmation is not valid unless they refer to the extent at which globalization has reached and to the economic, military, environmental, socio-cultural, political, legal, etc. implications that the events taking place in a particular area have in other areas, as an innovative factor. Otherwise, globalization is not new; it is just an intensified process of the previously experienced globalism.¹

According to Keohane and Nye, it is the density of networks, the increased degree of institutionalization and the increased international participation that make current globalization a distinct phenomenon. Yet, the information that is being conveyed via the highly developed and intensified networks is not always genuine, but it is interpreted in the context of distinct national policies and local cultures.²

¹ Robert O. Keohane and Joseph S. Nye Jr., "Governance in a Globalizing World" (2000), in Robert Keohane, *Power and Governance in a Partially Globalized World*, London, New York, Routledge, 2002, pp. 194-201.

² *Ibidem*, pp. 199-200.

This aspect does not set all area and all counties on a level of equality, and influences do not necessarily go both ways. Discussing the relation between globalization and development, Paul Dobrescu asserts that the negative social impact of globalization is partly because of the discrepancies between the developed counties and those that are on the verge of development, as the least developed ones do not have the same capacity of *defence*. In some cases it could lead to reduction in poverty, but the accumulation of richness can also lead to an even bigger discrepancy among countries. Dobrescu also raises awareness on the relation between the countries with a similar degree of development and the way in which they relate to each other. He considers China to be the country with the highest chances of imposing itself in the international environment.³

As globalization comprises action and reaction, next I am going to focus on the reactions of the individuals in front of this global phenomenon, more precisely on the stress that they might experience.

The theories on the specific relations between stressors and stress could be divided into two categories: systemic stress, with foundations in physiology and (Selye 1976) and psychological stress, with foundations in cognitive psychology.⁴

The endocrinologist Hans Selye introduced the concept of General Adaptation Syndrome. According to Selye, as a result of some analyses performed from a physiological perspective, there are three different types of reactions to stress: the alarm reaction (initial phase of shock and countershock), the phase of resistance (alarm symptoms disappear and this could indicate adaptation to those particular stressors) and the phase of exhaustion (the capacity of reaction to stressors disappears and the symptoms of the first phase reappear, without possibility of resistance, which leads to irreversible damages).⁵

A different approach to stress and its management is that of Richard Lazarus and Susan Folkman (1984). They propose the Transactional Model and they assert that stress is not a direct reaction to stressors, but more the capacity of reacting to the stressor and of controlling reactions. Psychological stress is determined by the appraisals made by a person regarding the environment and the encounters with that particular environment. Stress should be analysed on the sociological, psychological and physiological level; these levels interrelate after the elaboration of distinctive principles. The three levels can be put together through mediation and cognitive evaluation.⁶

Lazarus and Folkman make a distinction between primary and secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal refers to the occurrence of an event that could affect the individual's wellbeing, whereas secondary appraisal refers to the methods of coping with that particular event and with the stress factors that it produces. They also identify a third type of appraisal: reappraisal, which occurs in the context of new information related to the environment or of the individual's own reactions. Due to cognitive efforts of managing stressors, a situation

³ Paul Dobrescu, *Viclenia globalizării. Asaltul asupra puterii americane*, Iași, European Institute, 2010, pp. 15-21.

⁴ Heinz Walter Krohne, „Stress and Coping Theories”, in *The International Journal on the Biology of Stress*, vol. 22, Pergamon, 2002.http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~schuez/folien/Krohne_Stress.pdf, accessed in 07.08.2011.

⁵ Additional information on this topic is available in Hans Selye, *The stress of life*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1976, and Hans Selye, *Stress without distress*. Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1974.

⁶ Richard S. Lazarus and Susan Folkman, *Stress, Appraisal and Coping*, New York, Springer, 1984, pp. 287-289.

initially perceived as a threat could afterwards be perceived in a positive manner, as a challenge, and this change in perception is already a first step towards adaptation. Hence, the relation individual-environment is perceived as a bipolar relation of transactionalisation.⁷

In the case of coping with the stress caused by the intercultural encounters, the model proposed by Lazarus și Folkman seems to have a clear applicability, as the manifestations are more psychological than physiological. Also, the reappraisal phase is necessary for an accurate actualisation of the current situation.

Next, in order to move from the general concepts to their applicability, we are presenting a case study on Romanian residents in Bordeaux area, France. The research methods used in this case study are the interviews, field research and participant observation. The subjects have been chosen due to their similar background. Apart from their sex, their Romanian origin and their young age (24 to 30 years old), another similarity is the fact that all ten interviewed women had been beneficiaries of a study programme in France. After having finalised their study programmes, they returned to France as residents. Another reason for selecting the ten subjects is the fact that we consider their adaptation stories to a different cultural environment as success stories. This strategy of selecting the research subjects, of studying realities starting from a number of success stories in a certain domain of analysis, is a common strategy in qualitative research.⁸

The goal of this qualitative research was to follow and analyse the adaptation processes to the cultural environment of the above mentioned area. The semi-directed interviews focused of the following aspects: the circumstances under which the interviewees arrived to Bordeaux, the internal and external factors that contributed to the adaptive evolution, adaptation means and strategies, cultural differences between the area of origin and Bordeaux, interactions with foreign origin, French and Romanian origin citizens, the statute of foreigner, the attitude to the county of origin, the intercultural couple relations, identity related issues, the perception of what *being at home* represents. Naturally, the focus changed during the interviews, due to the particularity of each separate case.

In order not to alter or misinterpret the outcomes of the interviews, but to get sufficiently involved as to comprehend the situations and the messages conveyed by the interviewees, we have attempted to use the technique of *empathetic neutrality*, proposed by evaluation researcher Michael Quinn Patton.⁹ For a genuine representation of the opinions expresses by the interviewees, we will use the quotation method. Quotations are considered to be a useful means of presenting language particularities, of illustrating the significances assigned to certain social phenomena, of representing the particularities of an individual or of certain groups of individuals.¹⁰

In this article, we are presenting a series of outcomes of the case study, structured in three main categories: preserving cultural identity and integration to the new cultural

⁷ *Ibidem*, pp. 31-36.

⁸ Michael Quinn Patton, *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*, 3rd edition, Thousand Oaks, London, New Delhi, Sage Publications, 2002, p. 7.

⁹ *Ibidem*, pp. 49-50.

¹⁰ Clarissa White, Kandy Woodfield and Jane Lewis, "Reporting and Presenting Qualitative Data", in Jane Ritchie and Jane Lewis (editors), *Qualitative Research Practice, A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi, SAGE Publications, 2003, p. 313.

environment, the perception on the country of origin, and their perception on where *home* is. In order to protect the confidentiality of the interviewed subjects, we are using fictional first names.

We are commencing the analysis the analysis on preserving cultural identity and integration to the new cultural environment from the paper *Becoming Intercultural. An Integrative Theory of Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation*¹¹, of the communications researcher Young Yun Kim. In this paper, Kim describes the adaptive process of passing from one cultural environment to another, and explains the structure of this process and the main variables that influence the degree of adaptation of the individuals to the foreign cultural environment. She considers that intercultural adaptability has reached the level of a human universal phenomenon. Adaptation is perceived as a dynamic and complex process of evolution. A clear separation between the concepts of *we* and *they* is not applicable in this context where people move freely across borders. In spite of the different categories of travellers across borders and their degree of involvement, Kim asserts that there are certain common attributes from the perspective of the challenges that they are faced with; the discrepancies between the familiar and comfortable environment and the lack of this familiarity in the host environment limits their capacity of functioning efficiently, as functional models are no longer applicable.¹²

As a result, these persons experience the phase of existential alert¹³. In order to face this condition, there are two distinct possible approaches, namely the resistance to change and the attempt to keep as much as possible from the guidelines used in the home environment, and the effort of reaching the same statute as the natives of the host environment.

But the two directions do not necessarily exclude each other and the case of Dana, master student and also employee at the University of Bordeaux, is illustrative of both directions. For her, keeping the cultural traits of the Romanian culture is very important, but, as she has a stable workplace in Bordeaux and has a relationship with a native French, she also tries to integrate and to acquire some aspects of the French social behaviour. Hence, from a social point of view, she is aiming at a maximum integration and she is disturbed by the fact that she is still being perceived as a stranger: *I was told many times, for example people made the remark: oh, but you speak French very well, but I knew [...] on the one hand, when I was being told that: Ah, you speak so well! , I was frustrated in a way, ah, ok, so they realized that I am a foreigner because of the accent.*

From a religious point of view, on the other hand, she is still a practitioner of orthodoxy, considered to be an important aspect of her identity: *this is why I like Bordeaux, because there is a Romanian church here and an orthodox one, but particularly a Romanian one. This is very important, because if that wouldn't have existed in the city where I live in France, I think it would be more difficult for me, probably it would be more difficult, because I need, I need this not necessarily to go to church to speak to Romanians, I don't quite feel the need, not really.*

¹¹ Young Yun Kim, *Becoming Intercultural. An Integrative Theory of Communication and Cross-Cultural Adaptation*, Thousand Oaks, Sage Publications, 2001.

¹² *Ibidem*, pp. 4-5.

¹³ *Ibidem*, p. 5.

As we can see in the testimonial above, the church does not represent for her a social framework of connecting with people of the same origin, but her purse is a religious one. Nevertheless, we can see in her speech that interacting with Romanians is perceived as an advantage of going to church, but it is not her main purpose. Elaborating on the topic of religion, Dana expresses her discontent for the fact that France is a laic country, and this is one of the reasons why it is important to have found the proper place for her religious evolution as well, not just the social, professional or personal one. Her religious beliefs do not seem to affect her couple relationship and neither the social one. This is also due to the fact that her partner and future husband is not particularly interested towards religious aspects. Yet, the relation with his mother, who has strong religious beliefs but who is catholic, was influenced in a negative way because of the discrepancies in beliefs and practices. It is through mutual respect that they have managed to find a way of putting these differences aside and to properly communicate.

Raluca, arrived in Bordeaux in 2007 through an Erasmus student mobility programme, adapted easily to the area, particularly due to the fact that she was willing to make some major changes in her life when she was back home. The idea of new did not represent an obstacle to adaptation, because it was exactly the new that she was looking for: *I just wanted to leave home, to try to do something new*. This strategy of adaptation is functional as it is mostly based on expectations. Certainly, it is natural for some expectations to exist as, without them, the willingness for something new would be difficult to imagine, but a good strategy could be not letting expectations take over reality, and trying not to make too many predictions about the new cultural environment, trying not to turn an exercise of imagination into a reality that should exist because we expect it to. Naturally, this does not mean that expectations could not prove to be according to the actual situations, but it is better to keep them at a level where their non-accomplishment does not have a major psychological impact on us. Let's keep in mind that there are some situations when an unexpected reality could lead to great results.

Next, we are going to analyse the discourses of the interviewed persons from the point of view of their perception of the home country and home culture.

Dana is nostalgically talking about her home country, but also with sadness, because of the difficult economic and political situation that her family and friends back home are going through: *I am very disappointed of the political, economic situation and so on; [...] I am sorry for my family that is in Romania and for all those in Romania that I know would deserve much more*.

Wondering what would be the best way of presenting her country, Maria has become more interested in aspect related to Romania's situation than she was when she was living there, such as the political situation. She also considers that she does not know enough about her own country or about the neighbouring countries: *...when I was in Romania I was not preoccupied by a lot of things: I was not preoccupied by politics, there were a lot of things I did not know, and the funniest thing is that I did not know many things about The Republic of Moldova, which is right next to us, I had never visited countries that are next to us...* She does not agree with those people who judge the situation in their countries of origin after having left: *indeed, it is complicated to look at Romania from France even if you want it to, because for me it seems to be a very coward thing to do*.

Aurora makes a clear distinction between material and spiritual aspects when she talks about the changes in the perception on her home country. *The perception that I had of our country changed, as only when I came to France did I realise, by comparison, that there really are rich and poor countries. I am talking here strictly from a material point of view, as standard of living. Then, from a spiritual perspective, I believe that Romania is richer [...]. The simple fact that we have kept the holiday traditions – even if they also got lost in time – you can still feel the holiday spirit during Easter or Christmas, I find it to be clear evidence in this sense.*

The last case we are going to present is the one of Ilinca. Her situation is slightly different from the other, as she arrived in France as a full-time student, not through study mobility. Also, as she arrived in France in 1999, she witnessed a series of important events, both at a national and an international level, and we can consider that her opinions have a wider framework of analysis. As she occupies a leading position in a French - Romanian association, the contact with the home country is frequent. She says that her opinions are regarded in a sceptical way in Romania, as she has been abroad for too long to be aware of what is currently happening there. She disagrees with this perception: *But, on the contrary, I sometimes believe that I know more due to, well, the echo of the media, and, moreover, here you can listen to anything, you can listen to the TV back home, you can be 100% connected to Romania, all the TV stations, all the radio stations, the newspapers, the family that is there, just that there the distance to your own life does not exist.* Hence, she considers herself to be even more qualified to analyse situations back home than those that actually live there, because she is just as informed, but more objective.

We also consider pertinent her opinion on the perception of Romanians in France and on the changes that have occurred during the 11 years that she has been living there. She makes a clear distinction between the image that the media has created about Romania and the general perception of ordinary people: *I do not think anything changed. This is what our association does; it tries to make an incomplete image complete. I consider people to be curious by nature, and this is important. So, I believe that our media image does not correspond with the image that ordinary people have, because the moment people do not know a lot of things about a country they are going to tell you: I do not know much about Romania, and they will not have this preconceived idea that they talk about on television.*

We could interpret that this second discourse of Ilinca contradicts in a way the first one, as she mentioned media as one of the means of her keeping updated on the situation in Romania, and, on the other hand, she considers the image illustrated by the media not to be in accordance with the actual situation. Still, both her assertions could be valid if we consider the multitude of sources that she mentioned for keeping informed, the type of information, and the way you decide to interpret the information that you receive. Political or social events and the general opinion of the population clearly have different degrees of interpretability and subjectivity in analysis. And, in some cases, even people living in a particular country could be misinformed about a situation happening in their country but that they are not dealing with directly.

Another aspect that Ilinca brings into discussion is the attitude of people going to France, or to a new cultural environment, with a feeling of inferiority or playing the role of a victim. Even if in certain circles the attitude towards your country of origin could be a

negative one, the individual has the possibility of changing this preconception and of forming his or her own opinions in the new cultural environment, as preconceptions can go both ways. Indeed, getting informed about the foreign region is a means of obtaining support and guidance, but information can be obtained from unreliable sources, or it can be outdated, or simply not applicable to particular situations. The personal experience of each individual, as we can see in the case of these three persons with similar backgrounds and ages, makes the new cultural environment be perceived differently, but, as we have seen in all the cases above, it raises awareness on the culture of the country of origin as well.

The next topic of our analysis is represented by the answers given by the interviewed persons regarding the place where they feel at home, and their perspective on returning to their home country. In most cases, returning to Romania is not excluded, but it is less probable than the one of staying in the host country, in two of the cases the possibility of returning is excluded, and in one case, even if the possibility of returning to Romania is reduced, the one of remaining in the Bordeaux is also reduced.

As the last case is different from the other nine, we are going to begin our analysis with this one. Cristina, enrolled as PhD student in Bordeaux, does not clearly state that she does not intend to remain in Bordeaux, but we can sense in her discourse that she is less inclined than the others to embrace this environment and that she does not see a possibility of things to improve: *I have the feeling that I am not going to change my group of friends before I leave.*

The two persons that totally exclude the possibility of returning to Romania are Elena, who has been married to a French citizen for a few years, and Dana, who is engaged to a French citizen. Since they decided to get married and to start a family in Bordeaux, the decision concerning their return home has already been taken and they are no longer in a phase on incertitude. Nevertheless, their perception towards their host country is different. Dana, as we have previously discussed, is still strongly attached to her Romanian identity and to her country of origin: *You know how the saying goes: in my soul I will always be Romanian, it is on the first place, but, at the same time, I realize that France will always be the country that adopted me, that helped me very much, where I have met [my fiancée]. So, I cannot keep the distance and say that I am not French, but I am not, it is clear that I will never be, but I must accept this situation just like you accept a person [...] once you leave to another country you get used to the culture there, you start to unconsciously integrate a lot of things, you become a bit like them, [...] you leave a part of yourself aside, you leave it behind and you are somehow between two bridges and it is an identity problem after all, because you no longer know where you are, it is very complicated*". She is still reluctant to asking for the French citizenship and she perceives obtaining the citizenship as abandoning the Romanian one.

Elena's situation is different because, before arriving to Bordeaux, she did not feel her roots deeply settled in a particular country or culture. She was born in the Republic of Moldova, and she had to go through a first adaptation process when she moved to Romania for her studies. She changed the cultural environment when she took part in a student mobility programme in Bordeaux, than she returned to Romania, but to a different part of the country, and she studied there for one year, before going again to Bordeaux. The political and economic situation in the Republic of Moldavia, the little contact that she has kept with

Romania and the relationship with her husband made her choose to settle down in Bordeaux. She says: *you see, I am with an identity made of pieces [...] I have found my identity, the way I am, with these three countries. So, I have built my identity from one year to the other.* In Elena's speech on her own identity, we can notice the fact that she does not feel affected of having lost her roots as the other interviewed persons, particularly because she had not managed to grow roots in any of the areas where she resided before moving to Bordeaux. She is naturally attached to her place of birth, but she finds it difficult to identify with that place. She left her country and her family at such an early age that the different cultural experiences easily influenced her personality and her identity. As a result, she seems to have embraced the statute of foreigner, which she does not perceive in a negative way or as putting her in any position of inferiority. She seems to have found her own identity by being exposed to the diverse intercultural environment and by experimenting different identity options.

John Tomlinson asserts that the impact of globalization on cultural identity should not be perceived as something negative and that this identity is a product of globalization, not a *victim* of it. As nowadays we can no longer make the same type of connections between a geographical space and a certain cultural identity, globalization has been perceived as an identity destructive factor. Still, embracing this type of identity puts under doubt the concept of national identity, because of deterritorialization.¹⁴

Though not expressly stated, we can see in Maria's discourse the intention of remaining in Bordeaux. At the time the interview was taken, she was working for an association in charge of adolescents with communication of family problems. She was socially active and she was promoting Romania's image abroad. In her discourse, she is judgmental neither to the French nor to the Romanian culture. She finds the attitude of denigrating your own culture totally inappropriate: *I was mostly annoyed by the Romanians who come here and start to criticize Romania: Romania is that and that. It does not make sense because what we are at this moment is not due to the French influence. All their educational grounds, all their beliefs, their way of thinking, their capacity of analysis and so on, most of that comes from Romania. So, if you give all that up, practically there are not many things to be proud of, so I do not understand this type of attitudes.*

Even if she clearly points out that her reasons for leaving the country have not been financial, financial aspects do represent some of the reasons for not returning home. Returning to the country of origin is not excluded, but it is not perceived as one of the first options: *it is difficult to make a projection in the next 5-10 years, and I can still decide to go back home; I think it has never been black and white.* It is interesting, in her case, to see what is the role of her family and friends, who support the idea of her staying abroad and even advise her not to return.

Laura's perception on where home is represents a good example to illustrate the notion of *liquid modernity*¹⁵, introduced by Zygmunt Bauman, which is a modernity where space loses its capacity of constraint and individuals adapt easier to the changes caused by external factors. Highly involved in her professional activity, both in Romania and France, Laura says

¹⁴ John Tomlinson, „Globalization and Cultural Identity”, in David Held, Anthony G. McGrew, (editors), *The Global Transformation Reader*, 2nd edition, Cambridge, Polity Press, 2003, pp. 269-278.

¹⁵ Zygmunt Bauman, *Liquid Modernity*, Cambridge, Polity Press, 2000.

that she started to focus less and less of her statute of foreigner and on the difficulties that come with this statute, though there have also been moments when this aspects affected her much more. For her, the question was never about returning home or staying in France; it was about doing her job and developing her career in France or in Romania. After managing to build a career in France, the situation slightly changed. When asked what she would do if a similar position would be available for her in Romania, Laura answered that she would accept it only if the one in France would no longer be available. Then she gives other arguments against returning at home: *But this would involve...yes, I think I would do it [...] I think there isn't much I can do than to sit and wait for things to go in one direction or the other. Yes, well, I think it is also a strategy in order not to make a decision.* Her strategy of not problematizing too much this aspect and of not considering her decisions as being radical and definitive seems to have worked for her psychological and socio-cultural adaptation: *I think this is a personal strategy that I have learned by necessity in time, because it is very difficult to choose and, on the other hand, I do not understand why you have to choose; I mean, I think that I can do both.*

When asked about feeling at home, Laura said that, at the moment, she feels at home in Bordeaux. *I have tried to make at home the place where I live, what is more convenient at a particular moment, because there is still a neurosis that is pretty strong, if you let it take you over: oh, what am I going to do, oh, where am I going, oh, am I coming back? Let's be serious, we are in 2011.*

Even if she is living in France, Laura still feels very connected to Romania and she says that she has recently bought an apartment in Romania, for her visits back home: *You wake up for example at 9 o'clock in the evening that you have no place to sleep at night and that you have to go to a hotel; it is a horrible feeling, so it creates an even larger gap regarding where my home is and this is, after all, my country and I should have a place here, but you actually don't [...] this is, after all my country and I should have a place here.*

The last case we are going to present is the one of Alina, who considers herself very insecure of what she is going to do: *At the moment, I do not know what I intend to do because this is a pretty difficult question for me, because I have been asking myself this question every day and I cannot find an answer. [...] I ask myself: what do I want to do next; do I want to go home, to find a job and then go on holidays at the Black Sea?* We can see that she treats her option on returning home in a slight ironical way, perceiving her return as a way of entering into a sort of routine, a sort of limitation in her evolution. Hence, even if she declares not having reached a decision yet, she seems to be more willing to explore other options that to return to Romania.

The anthropologist Gordon Mathews, in a comparative study on groups belonging to American, Japanese and Chinese cultures, analyses the connection between belonging to a certain national culture and the belonging to the *global cultural supermarket*, and the tensions that an individual is faced with in this context.¹⁶ Mathews considers that the freedom of choice within the cultural supermarket is mostly an illusion, because the way in which we are culturally and personally formed guides and limits this freedom. The cultural supermarket is

¹⁶ Gordon Mathews, *Global Culture/Individual Identity. Searching for Home in the Cultural Supermarket*. London, New York, Routledge, 2000.

structured according to directions dictated by economic and political aspects, so the choice and the shaping of cultural identity by individuals who oscillate between what they are and what they could become is actually limited by the possible identities made available by the global cultural supermarket.¹⁷

Ward, Bochner and Furnham talk about four possible styles in the reactions of individuals to the influences of intercultural contact, in relation to the influence of the second culture on the ethical and cultural identity of the individual: sometimes individuals could reject the culture of origin and adopt the new culture; another reaction is to reject the influences of the second culture, considered to be a foreign, and to withdraw within the culture of origin; another reaction is of oscillating between the two cultures without finding a place in any of them; some people, though these cases are less common, are capable of synthesizing different cultural identities and of developing bicultural or multicultural identities.¹⁸

The highest degree of acculturation and adaptation of foreigners to a new cultural environment is reached at the stage of assimilation within the host environment. The power of the foreigner to bring changes to the characteristics of the dominant culture are minimal, especially in what the immediate and easily noticeable changes are concerned. As a result, the process of adaptation causes psychological stress on the individual who tries to adapt but, at the same time, not to lose specific features of the culture of origin. The stress causing conflict is between the need for acculturation and the resistance to deculturation. Kim calls this changes *stress-adaptation-growth dynamic*, the three elements being interdependent. The individuals that are considered to have adapted successfully are the ones who managed to solve their identity conflicts, who understand that cultural barriers are not impossible to be overpassed and who consider that borrowing elements from different cultures does not represent a loss for the individual or for those cultures.¹⁹

To conclude, the cases analysed in this paper can be considered to be success stories for the process of adaptation. It is true that some oscillate between staying abroad or returning home, but the balance is in favour of remaining in the host country. We can consider them as successfully adapted individuals, as they have managed to embrace the new cultural traits and they have turned them into opportunities.

As previously illustrated, adaptation could be reached through tolerance, respect, availability, self-control, focusing on personal or professional accomplishments, having a positive attitude, embracing the opportunities available in an interculturally challenged world. Hence, there are no guidelines that could be applicable to all individuals, even when faced with similar situations. As we cannot all be the same, we cannot become or evolve in the same manner and, nowadays it is almost impossible to clearly state the belonging to only one particular place.

¹⁷ *Ibidem*, p. 186.

¹⁸ Colleen Ward; Stephen Bochner; Adrian Furnham, *The Psychology of Culture Shock*, London, Routledge, 2001., pp. 30-31.

¹⁹ Young Yun Kim, *op.cit.*, pp. 52-67.

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Note: The translation of the original interviews from Romanian to English has been done by the authors.

